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**National Service and Its Effect on the Army's
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12 ABSTRACT (Maximum length)

This thesis investigates the effect the National and Community Service Act of 1993 will have on the Army's ability to acquire high-quality soldiers. The research shows that the Act of 1993 will attract one-third of the high-quality youth who had previously indicated a desire to serve in the Army. This equates to 24,500 of the 70,000 individuals the Army must recruit annually. The analysis includes a determination of the factors affecting the problem: (1) Young Americans willingness to serve in the Army, (2) The Army's requirement to enlist quality soldiers given the increasing technological complexity of Army weapon and support systems, (3) Targeted youth population size and quality, (4) Benefits of serving in a national service program or the Army. Career choices of the targeted youth regarding Army and National Service were analyzed in the context of the four factors affecting the problem. Money for college is the primary consideration of high-quality youth when making a career decision. The National Service Act of 1993 provides an educational benefit nearly equal to that offered by the Army. This research shows that the majority of high-quality young people prefer National service to Army service as a means of obtaining money for college.

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18 SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF ABSTRACT

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The first part of the unit is a reading passage about the history of the United States. It starts with a paragraph about the early settlers and then goes on to talk about the American Revolution. The passage is written in a formal, academic style and is intended for students who are studying the history of the United States. The passage is divided into several paragraphs, each of which focuses on a different aspect of the country's history. The first paragraph discusses the early settlers and the challenges they faced. The second paragraph talks about the American Revolution and the role of the Founding Fathers. The third paragraph discusses the early years of the new nation and the challenges it faced. The fourth paragraph talks about the expansion of the United States and the role of the military. The fifth paragraph discusses the Civil War and the role of the Union. The sixth paragraph talks about the Reconstruction period and the challenges it faced. The seventh paragraph discusses the Gilded Age and the role of the industrial revolution. The eighth paragraph talks about the Progressive Era and the role of the government. The ninth paragraph discusses the Great Depression and the role of the New Deal. The tenth paragraph talks about the Second World War and the role of the United States. The eleventh paragraph discusses the Cold War and the role of the United States. The twelfth paragraph talks about the Vietnam War and the role of the United States. The thirteenth paragraph discusses the Watergate scandal and the role of the United States. The fourteenth paragraph talks about the Reagan Revolution and the role of the United States. The fifteenth paragraph discusses the Clinton administration and the role of the United States. The sixteenth paragraph talks about the Bush administration and the role of the United States. The seventeenth paragraph discusses the Obama administration and the role of the United States. The eighteenth paragraph talks about the Trump administration and the role of the United States. The nineteenth paragraph discusses the Biden administration and the role of the United States. The twentieth paragraph talks about the future of the United States and the role of the United States.

Block 1: The early settlers and the challenges they faced. The passage discusses the difficulties of life in the wilderness and the role of the government in providing support.

Block 2: The American Revolution and the role of the Founding Fathers. The passage discusses the causes of the revolution and the role of the Founding Fathers in creating the new nation.

Block 3: The early years of the new nation and the challenges it faced. The passage discusses the difficulties of building a new country and the role of the government in providing support.

Block 4: The expansion of the United States and the role of the military. The passage discusses the role of the military in the expansion of the United States and the challenges it faced.

Block 5: The Civil War and the role of the Union. The passage discusses the causes of the Civil War and the role of the Union in winning the war.

Block 6: The Reconstruction period and the challenges it faced. The passage discusses the difficulties of rebuilding the South and the role of the government in providing support.

Block 7: The Gilded Age and the role of the industrial revolution. The passage discusses the role of the industrial revolution in the Gilded Age and the challenges it faced.

Block 8: The Progressive Era and the role of the government. The passage discusses the role of the government in the Progressive Era and the challenges it faced.

Block 9: The Great Depression and the role of the New Deal. The passage discusses the role of the New Deal in the Great Depression and the challenges it faced.

Block 10: The Second World War and the role of the United States. The passage discusses the role of the United States in the Second World War and the challenges it faced.

Block 11: The Cold War and the role of the United States. The passage discusses the role of the United States in the Cold War and the challenges it faced.

Block 12: The Vietnam War and the role of the United States. The passage discusses the role of the United States in the Vietnam War and the challenges it faced.

Block 13: The Watergate scandal and the role of the United States. The passage discusses the role of the United States in the Watergate scandal and the challenges it faced.

NATIONAL SERVICE AND ITS EFFECT
ON THE ARMY'S ABILITY TO RECRUIT QUALITY SOLDIERS

A thesis presented to the Faculty of the U.S. Army
Command and General Staff College in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree

MASTER OF MILITARY ART AND SCIENCE

by

ALLEN W. BATSCHELET, CPT (P), USA
B.S., Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa, 1983

Fort Leavenworth, Kansas
1994

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**MASTER OF MILITARY ART AND SCIENCE
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The opinions and conclusions expressed herein are those of the student author and do not necessarily represent the views of the U.S. Army Command and General Staff College or any other governmental agency. (References to this study should include the foregoing statement.)

ABSTRACT

**NATIONAL SERVICE AND ITS EFFECT ON THE ARMY'S ABILITY TO
RECRUIT QUALITY SOLDIERS by CPT Allen W. Batschelet,
USA, 112 pages**

This thesis investigates the effect the National and Community Service Act of 1993 will have on the Army's ability to acquire high-quality recruits. The research shows that the Act of 1993 will attract one-third of the high-quality youth who had previously indicated a desire to serve in the Army. This equates to 24,500 of the 70,000 individuals the Army must recruit annually.

The analysis includes a determination of the factors affecting the problem: (1). Young Americans willingness to serve in the Army; (2). The Army's requirement to enlist quality soldiers given the increasing technological complexity of weapon and support systems; (3). Targeted youth population size and quality; (4). Benefits of serving in a national service program or the Army. Career choices of the targeted youth regarding Army and National Service were analyzed in the context of the four factors affecting the problem.

Money for college is the primary consideration of high-quality youth when making a career decision. The Act of 1993 provides an educational benefit nearly equal to that offered by the Army. Research shows that the majority of high-quality young people prefer national service to Army service as a means of obtaining money for college.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background

Today's international security environment evolved from one characterized by bi-polarism to one of regionalism. Deterrence of Soviet aggression and containment of communism is no longer the goal. With the dissolution of the Soviet Union in 1989 and the Warsaw Pact in 1990, the United States' armed forces faced a dilemma. The U.S. military can no longer focus on one adversary and tailor forces to counter only one specific threat.

Resurgence in nationalism and a spreading desire for self-determination characterize the world today. Former third world nations, such as Pakistan, are becoming influential nations. Accompanying this movement is an expansion of regional conflicts like that in the Balkans, as ethnic groups, legitimate governments, and emerging popular factions compete for control, territory, and international recognition.

In response to this change, the U.S. Army is restructuring itself from a force designed to counter one major threat, i.e., communism, to one designed to tailor force packages capable of responding nearly simultaneously

to two regional conflicts. The real threat confronting the Army today is the unknown. Force projection and crisis response are the watchwords of the day. As described in the current United States National Military Strategy, the Army is the military instrument of power responsible for responding to regional missions and achieving decisive victory on land.¹

The American people expect victory swiftly and with a minimum loss of life. Commitment to this goal requires that army units be capable of bringing to bear overwhelming combat power against the enemy to achieve decisive victory. Combat power is the combination of trained quality soldiers, competent leaders, and modern equipment.²

Significance Of The Problem

The United States is arguably the only superpower in the world today. The vision of the world the United States aspires to is one of freedom, respect for human rights, free markets, and the rule of law.³ To achieve its national interests the United States must retain a credible, quality army as the decisive instrument of national power. As the Army becomes smaller it is imperative to realize that near-term reductions in manpower quality have long-term effects.

According to Trevor N. Dupuy, (General, USA, RET.) a respected defense analyst:

Facts indicate that while a country may expect to coast for some time on the intangibles of troop quality, leadership, discipline, training, and tactics, a high level of combat effectiveness, once lost, may be hard to restore.⁴

Without the ability to successfully conduct and win a sustained land conflict, the United States will forfeit its role as world leader and jeopardize its national interests.

This problem has implications for the future security of the United States. The United States Army has rebuilt itself from the demoralized hollow service of the Vietnam and post-Vietnam eras into a credible deterrent of armed aggression and a first-class fighting force. This metamorphosis is evidenced by the Army's success in Operations Desert Shield/Storm, Just Cause, and Provide Comfort. Today the Army is capable of providing the land component of a joint task force that can deploy to any location in the world and achieve decisive victory. The United States must ensure the continuation of this capability. It can do so only by ensuring that the Army continues to acquire the quantity and quality of soldiers necessary to operate its sophisticated weapon systems.

To obtain quality recruits the Army must compete with industry, universities, and the other military services. Not only must the Army today struggle in the traditional manpower market place, but it now faces a new

form of competition by the National and Community Service Act of 1993.⁵ Competition for high-quality individuals in the form of the National and Community Service Act of 1993 will reduce the number of high-quality recruits the Army is able to attract to its ranks.

As budget pressure from Congress increases to reduce the size of the Army, and the Army continues to field technically complex weapon systems, quality of the force becomes paramount. The effects of technology permeate society from industry to homes and throughout the military. Use of the microprocessor, robotics in manufacturing, and instantaneous communication systems requires that both blue and white collar workers possess highly technical skills to be productive.

Fielding increasingly sophisticated weapon systems demands the Army, like industry, acquire high-quality individuals to operate and maintain its equipment. Martin Binkin, a defense analyst at the Brookings Institute, warns that a greater premium will be placed on technical skills in the future:

The weight of the evidence is that both new and replacement weapon systems will demand ever-more-skilful operators and maintainers, especially if the capabilities of new systems are to be fully exploited. Thus prudent planners should anticipate that the services' requirements for bright, technologically literate individuals are unlikely to diminish in the years ahead, and it is more likely, given the present course, that the need for such people will grow commensurate with the complexity of the systems being fielded.⁶

While Congress is reducing the size of the Army, it is also expanding the Army's roles and missions, expecting technology to substitute for quantity. The Army currently has 25,000 soldiers deployed in sixty foreign nations including, Macedonia, Egypt, Europe, and Honduras, engaged in "Operations Other than War," (OOTW) compared to 1992 when 12,000 were deployed in thirty-five countries.⁷ These missions include humanitarian assistance, security assistance, peacekeeping operations, and counterdrug operations. High-quality soldiers are not only a prerequisite for conducting these missions successfully, but remain an indispensable factor in the Army's ability to train for and execute combat operations. In testimony before the Senate Armed Services committee on May 19, 1993, General Gordon Sullivan, Chief of Staff of the Army said:

The paradox of the Cold War is that although technology may assist us in overcoming a quantitative loss, the fact of the matter is, what we are being asked to do requires highly trained, competent men and women who are soldiers.⁸

Successful recruiting of high-quality individuals depends on several important factors: the civilian labor market, the number of new recruits required, propensity to serve (propensity is the inclination or preference to choose one option over another), recruiting resources, and competition from colleges and civilian employers. As the Army recruiting budget and propensity to serve declines and

the size and quality of the youth cohort falls, competition for high-quality youth will intensify.

The targeted recruit is the high-quality eighteen year old high school graduate who lacks prior service experience and scores well on military entrance exams. Two elements comprise the Army's definition of a high-quality recruit: possession of a high school diploma, or its equivalent, and results from the Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery test (ASVAB).⁹ A standardized test, the ASVAB is administered to all potential enlistees. It consists of ten subtests:

Word Knowledge	Coding Speed
Paragraph Comprehension	General Science
Arithmetic Reasoning	Auto and Shop Information
Mathematics Knowledge	Mechanical Comprehension
Numerical Operations	Electronics Information

Four of these subtests, word knowledge, paragraph comprehension, arithmetic reasoning and mathematics knowledge, combine to form the Armed Forces Qualification Test (AFQT). This test compares the applicant's score to the national populations normative score. Percentile scores range from one through ninety-nine. The AFQT has eight categories:

I	93-99
II	65-92
IIIA	50-64
IIIB	31-49
IVA	21-30
IVB	16-20
IVC	10-15
V	1-9

The Army uses the scores on these subtests in two ways: to measure general military trainability and to assess vocational aptitude for a specific Military Occupational Specialty (MOS).¹⁰

Each MOS requires attainment of a set minimum score for that occupation. An MOS of a relatively high technical nature requires a potential enlistee to attain higher AFQT scores to qualify. Based on the ASVAB score achieved by the potential enlistee the Army assigns recruits to MOSs for which they qualify. The combination of a high school degree and scores achieved on the ASVAB are good general predictors of an individual's academic quality. They also serve as an indication of a recruit's ability to successfully complete an initial enlistment term.¹¹

Experientially based guidelines developed by the Army since World War II demonstrate that individuals scoring in categories I through IIIA will normally be successful and complete their initial enlistment term of service. The Army actively seeks out and recruits these individuals. Limited by law, the Army attempts to avoid recruiting from category IV. When the Army has difficulty enlisting the required quotas of category I-IIIA, the number of category IV accessions increases. Congress bars category V level individuals from joining any military service.¹²

Thesis Chapter Summary

This thesis will examine what effect the National and Community Service Act of 1993 will have on the Army's ability to recruit high-quality individuals. Chapter 2 will present the scope, assumptions, and research design that addresses the thesis topic. The research methodology utilized will incorporate several techniques including a literature review to obtain background information, an analysis of trends using historical data and development of conclusions based on the trend analysis. Chapter 3 describes the all-volunteer force and its requirements for high-quality individuals. It discusses the history of national service in the United States and demonstrates how the concept of national service evolved into the current National and Community Service Act of 1993. It also describes the four environmental factors bearing on the problem including, the size and quality of the recruitment eligible youth pool, the increasingly technical weapons employed by the Army, reduced recruiting budgets and propensity of youths to serve in the Army, and benefits offered by serving in the Army or a national service program. The last section reviews key literature and its relationship to the thesis. Chapter 4 analyzes relevant information and presents the results of the analysis.

Chapter 5 presents the conclusions derived from the research and analysis. This chapter also includes a presentation of recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND SCOPE

Competition for high-quality individuals in the form of the National and Community Service Act of 1993 will reduce the number of high-quality recruits the Army is able to obtain. To determine the validity of this thesis, it is necessary to examine the all-volunteer army, its requirement for quality recruits, and its use of technologically sophisticated weapon systems. Additionally, it requires study of the National and Community Service Trust Act of 1993 and of the factors affecting the problem, including the size and quality of the pool of youth eligible for service, reduced propensity to serve, reduced recruiting budgets, and competing benefits.

This chapter presents the research design that addresses the thesis topic. The research methodology utilized incorporates several techniques, including gathering background information, analyzing trends using historical data and developing conclusions based on the trend analysis.

Methodology

The research methodology for the conduct of this study is depicted in figure 1.

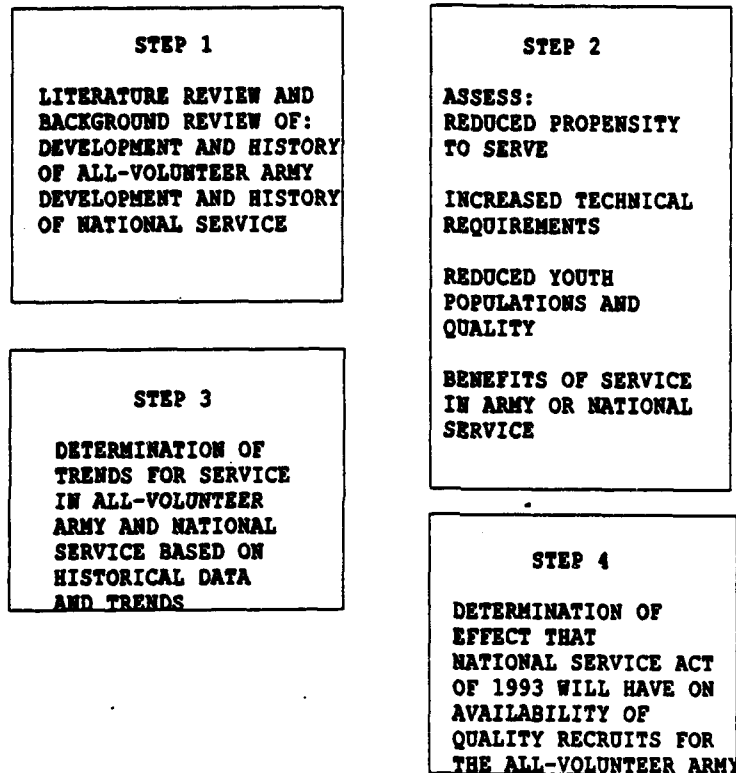


Fig. 1. Research Methodology

The methodology is a four step process designed to answer the thesis question presented in Chapter 1. Step one, the literature review and the gathering of background information, is presented in Chapter 3. It focuses on the development, history, and current status of the all-

volunteer force and national service. This review provides historical trends in the evolution of the All-Volunteer Army and national service that forms the basis for developing conclusions regarding the thesis question. The review also defines the key factors affecting the problem.

Step two, addressed in chapter 3, is an assessment of the four factors affecting the thesis: reduced propensity to serve in the military and declining recruiting budgets, the Army's increased use of technologically sophisticated weapons, reduced quality and size of the youth population, and benefits of serving in either the army or a national service program.

Step three, addressed in chapter 4, is a determination of trends for future service in the Army and national service programs. The basis for determining past and present youth attitudes and factors influencing career decisions is found in historical and current data in the form of surveys and previous research. Combining historical information with current attitude studies and questionnaires, and given current education and civilian employment opportunities, it is possible to predict future career decision trends for the target youth pool.

Step four, addressed in chapters 4 and 5, is an examination and analysis of the effect that the National and Community Service Act of 1993 will have on availability of

high-quality recruits for the Army based on the conclusions drawn in step three.

Scope and limitations

The major limitation affecting this thesis is that the National and Community Service Act of 1993 will remain exclusively voluntary. Any form of national service involving mandatory service or some version of conscription would invalidate this thesis. If the changing political world climate forced the United States to reverse the downsizing of its armed services my conclusions would lose validity. Increased requirements for recruits would amplify the impact of competition from the National and Community Service Act.

Delimitations

Other nations throughout the world use some form of national service. Structured differently, each of these nations designs its respective programs to reflect national desires, priorities, and resources. For example, Germany and France use national service to allow conscientious objectors to fulfill their obligations without violating personal beliefs. Western European countries with national service programs may offer some evidence for this study. However, each program and country is unique and lessons or conclusions drawn from these experiences do not necessarily transfer to the United States.

Assumptions

The research findings, analysis, and conclusions are based on five initial assumptions.

1. American youth will act out of self-interest and economic necessity. Targeted youth will tend to choose between military service and other available career options perceived by them and their parents to provide the best return for their invested time and effort. Some participants may act out of a sense of civic duty and patriotism; however, that group will remain in the minority.

2. National and community service will continue to be characterized as voluntary service. Military service is not part of this act, and will remain separate and distinct from any national service program. Any form of national service that includes military service will negate the current design of the All-Volunteer Force, resulting in a form of conscription.

3. The Army will continue to follow the Clinton Administration's force structure plan based on the "bottom up review," with an Army end strength of 500,000 soldiers in ten active duty divisions.

4. Current youth population projections will remain valid.

5. Army force modernization programs will continue to field increasingly sophisticated weapon systems.

This chapter presented the analytical framework for addressing the thesis question, scope of the research, and assumptions concerning the thesis. The research methodology for this thesis will incorporate several techniques: gathering background information and reviewing pertinent literature, determining future trends of service in the Army and national service programs, and analyzing the effect that national service will have on the Army of the future.

CHAPTER 3

BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE REVIEW

On March 27, 1969, President Nixon announced the appointment of an advisory commission on an all-volunteer armed force. Chairing the commission was the Honorable Thomas S. Gates, Jr., a former Secretary of Defense.¹ The formation of this commission signaled the beginning of the all-volunteer force and the end of conscription in the United States.

President Nixon charged the commission to study the possibilities for increasing the supply of volunteers for service, including increased pay, benefits, recruitment incentives, and other measures to make military careers more attractive to young men. It studied possible changes in selection standards and utilization policies that might assist in eliminating the need for inductions.²

The Commission submitted its results to the President on February 20, 1970. It concluded that a return to an all-volunteer force would strengthen individual freedoms and allow for the voluntary expression of the patriotism that had never been lacking among youth. Furthermore, it would promote efficiency in the armed forces and enhance their dignity. The all-volunteer force would be

a system for maintaining standing forces that minimized government interference with the freedom of the individual to determine his own life in accord with his values.³ In 1973 the all-volunteer force became a reality and conscription ended.

The Army's experience with the all-volunteer force has been varied and contentious. From its inception questions regarding recruitment and retention of high-quality individuals have been raised. Several factors have contributed to setbacks in recruit quality: military pay relative to civilian occupations, rising and falling educational benefits, levels of spending devoted to recruitment advertising, and the public's image of the Army.

The decade of the 1970s found the Army struggling with perceived failure in Vietnam, low pay, and the Iranian hostage rescue incident. Beginning with President Reagan's inauguration, the Army began to recover its credibility. Coupled with President Reagan's appeal to patriotism, significantly increased pay and educational benefits, the material modernization of forces, and successful operations, such as Urgent Fury in Grenada, America's faith in its Army was restored.

During the two decades of existence of the all-volunteer force, Army personnel strength has fluctuated slightly, while the quality of soldiers and technology requirements has increased significantly. At the inception

of the all-volunteer force, 783,000 personnel were on active duty with the Army. By 1983, 780,000 soldiers were serving in eighteen active duty divisions. Today that number has declined to 574,000 in twelve divisions in 1993.⁴ Recent Department of Defense (DOD) projections for Army end strength are approximately 500,000 personnel, comprising ten active duty divisions by FY 1999.⁵

Historically, the Army undergoes a reduction in size upon completion of major conflicts. Thereafter, it maintains a relatively smaller standing regular force until the next conflict emerges. This cycle has been repeated four times in the twentieth century: after the two World Wars, the Korean War, and the Vietnam War. The end of the Cold War with the former Soviet Union, coupled with economic necessity, finds the United States Army repeating this pattern. Paradoxically, the expectation of a reduced threat to U.S. national interests has not occurred.⁶ Smaller regional conflicts around the world, such as the Balkans and Southern Africa, have emerged to threaten world stability. The United States has chosen to meet these threats with a high-quality and technologically sophisticated army. Inherent in this decision is the assumption that the Army can attract high-quality young men and women volunteers to perform the challenging tasks required of a modern and technically sophisticated force.

Since the inception of the all-volunteer army recruit quality improved continually until 1992. Numbers of individuals classified as high-quality recruits have progressed from FY 80, when 54 percent possessed high school diplomas and 36 percent were high-quality, to a high in 1992 when 99 percent had high school diplomas and 77.7 percent were high-quality. More significantly, AFQT category IV recruits accounted for 52 percent of accessions in 1980 but only .4 percent in 1992.⁷

Within the last two years signs of a decline in recruit quality have emerged. In 1993, 94.5 percent of recruits possessed high school diplomas well below USAREC's goal of 100 percent; only 70 percent of these recruits were considered high-quality. The 1993 statistics reveal 2.2 percent of recruits were category IV, despite the Army's goal of 0 percent, while Army recruitment goals for FY 1994 call for enlisting 2 percent category IVs to achieve current enlistment quotas. As of December 1993, recruits with high school diplomas dropped to 93 percent, and CAT IV enlistments increased to 3.1 percent.⁸

Consistent with the reduction of Army forces the United States Army Recruiting Command (USAREC) must recruit approximately 70,000 new soldiers in FY 1994, approximately 7000 less than in FY 1993. Assigned quality goals for FY 1994 reflect the increased difficulties in recruiting. Recruitment goals for FY 1994 recruits are that 95 percent

will possess high school diplomas, 67 percent will fall in AFQT categories I-III A, and 2 percent of recruits will be in category IV - goals not being met as of January 1994.⁹ This downward trend in recruit quality is disturbing in view of the increasingly complex weapon systems employed by the Army and the apparent substitution of quality for quantity in meeting its manpower requirements. See Table 1.

TABLE 1.
RECRUIT QUALITY

	FY 1977	FY 1980	FY 1992	FY 1993	FY 1994
HSDG%	69	54	99	94.5	93.1
CAT I-III A%	26	36	77.7	70	70
CAT IV%	74	52	0.4	2.2	3.1

Source: USAREC, State of the Command Brief, (Fort Knox: United States Recruiting Command, 1993), 6.

Technological developments will continue to expand the need for highly skilled people; manning problems could become severe with the reduced quality and quantity of the Army's primary recruitment pool. Technological advancement in the past fifty years has had a dramatic effect on all sectors of American society, especially the Army. As evidenced by its experience in Operation Desert Storm, the U.S. Army has an undeniable technological edge in weapon and support systems over the rest of the armies in the world.

For example, the AH-64 Apache attack helicopter, and the M1A2 Abrams tank are the most technologically advanced systems of their kind. As the weapons of war have become more sophisticated, so too has the military's roster of jobs and the requisite skills of its members.

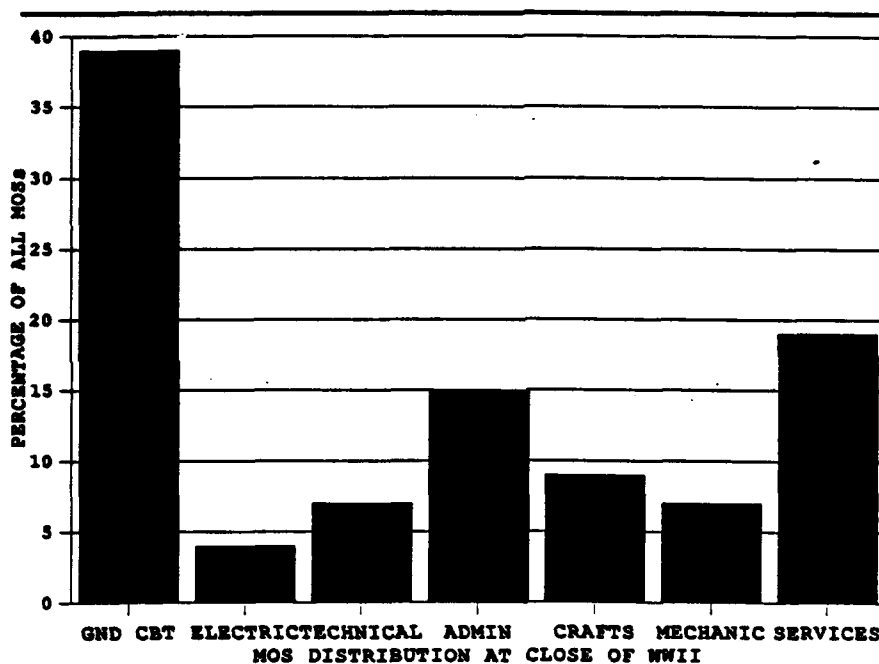
During the nineteenth century U.S. Army forces consisted mainly of infantrymen. Ninety-five percent of the Union's soldiers in the Civil War were basic riflemen or artillerymen. Support soldiers normally repaired guns, wagons, and saddles. Following the Civil War, until World War I, the Army's technological sophistication evolved slowly. When war broke out in Europe, the Army quickly adopted motorized transport, aircraft, and armored fighting vehicles. Fielding of this equipment brought with it the need for operators and maintainers. Additionally, the numbers of administrators and clerks increased significantly in order to manage and account for the large numbers of equipment and personnel. By the end of the First World War almost 60 percent of enlisted men were in support positions, and about one-half of them were craftsman, mechanics and repairmen, administrative and clerical personnel, and technicians.¹⁰

World War II saw the first extensive use of armor and aircraft in land warfare. With these new machines came an expansion of the battlefield never before experienced. By the end of World War II, only 39 percent of the Army's

enlisted soldiers held ground combat jobs, and fewer than one-half of these were in the infantry. Support requirements had increased as specialists were needed in communications, radar, fire control equipment, intelligence, and the medical and dental fields.¹¹ See Table 2.

TABLE 2

MOS DISTRIBUTION AT END OF WWII



Source: Harold Wool, The Military Specialist: Skilled Manpower for the Armed Forces, (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1968), 27.

Technological change since World War II has increased at an accelerated pace. Major technologies deriving from World War II included more sophisticated land fighting machines, aeronautics, submarines, and electronics. More recently, microprocessors and computers, combined with

space technology, have heavily influenced the structure of the Army.¹²

The Department of Defense now groups occupation specialties into nine categories: (1) infantry, gun crews; (2) electronic equipment repairers; (3) communications and intelligence specialists; (4) medical and dental specialists; (5) other technical and allied specialists; (6) functional support and administrators; (7) electrical/mechanical equipment repairers; (8) craftsman; and (9) service and supply handlers. The most obvious recent change is the increase in electronics-related occupations which account for approximately one of five enlisted occupations, compared with one of twenty at the end of World War II. The Army's percentage of technical MOSs now accounts for approximately 30 percent of enlisted soldiers, while 20 percent of those MOSs are electronics-related.¹³

More significant than the overall increase in technical MOSs is the increase in technical complexity of the specific jobs. For example, although the percentage of clerical positions has remained more or less stable over the years, many clerks must now have data processing skills. Another example exists in the technical requirements for field artillerymen. With the fielding of the new M109A6 (Paladin) 155mm howitzer, the crew must operate and maintain an on board inertial navigation system and an electronic

fire control system. The current 155mm howitzer system (M109A3) is a delivery system only. Fire control for the M109A3 is provided by a separate system that manages up to eight howitzers, while navigation responsibilities fall to an officer that moves howitzers collectively around the battlefield. On the other hand, the M109A6 requires the howitzer section chief to operate independently; and each howitzer is responsible for its own movement, correct placement, and computation of firing data. This represents a revolution in artillery operation and places a premium on the technical and leadership abilities of the howitzer section chief.

As impressive as technological change has been in the past, it is likely to accelerate in the future. Increasingly complex weapon systems continue to be fielded by the Army. The new M1A2 tank has a sophisticated fire control system and an Inter-Vehicular Information System (IVIS). The IVIS interfaces with other informational systems on the battlefield and allows the tank commander access to real-time intelligence, including friendly and enemy locations and the current battle situation. It also has the ability to communicate information digitally over the FM radio to both subordinates and superiors. Another example is the AH-64 (Apache) attack helicopter. Planned upgrades in on-board avionics will improve its ability to operate at night and in all types of weather conditions.

Also, the Army's decision to field the next generation helicopter (Comanche) represents a revolutionary leap in technological complexity.

Major initiatives are under way to improve the Army's ability to detect enemy formations and to attack them with large volumes of accurate firepower. Desert Storm provided a look at this emerging technology in the form of the Air Force's Joint Strategic Targeting Attack Radar System (JSTARS). JSTARS locates moving targets and tracks them by radar. It then transmits real time intelligence into automated systems that process, analyze and distribute intelligence reports to commanders on the ground, potentially including individual M1A2 tank commanders. Finally, tying all these capabilities together is a command and control system named the Army Tactical Command and Control System (ATCCS). This system consists of five subsystems that provide battlefield commanders reliable, jam resistant, and secure communications. Forecasted change in Army technology utilization, especially in the area of electronics, demonstrates the need for quality individuals to operate these increasingly complex systems.¹⁴

Prior to the inception of the all-volunteer force, the Army used soldiers of average ability, representing a cross-section of the U.S. population to fill its ranks and man its weapon and support systems. Recruiting high-quality, technically-proficient individuals is a significant

and relatively recent challenge for the Army. This challenge is made even more difficult by the declining quality of the youth pool that the Army must recruit from. Additionally, the Army competes with industry, colleges, and the other armed services for this increasingly scarce resource.

Maintenance of quality standards depends upon continued competitive compensation, attractive educational incentives and enlistment bonuses, and maintenance of an effective communications/advertising program to ensure high-quality prospects are aware of opportunities available through Army service. These programs become increasingly important when the propensity to enlist decreases.¹⁵

The burden for enlisting the quantity and quality of personnel required to fill the Army's ranks resides with USAREC. The All-Volunteer Army relies on a system of recruiters comprised mainly of senior non-commissioned officers, operating from recruiting stations located throughout the United States. Assigned mission quotas for each station and its associated recruiters are determined, constantly evaluated, and revised based on a number of criteria: population density; economic status of the area; average education level of the total population; and racial mix.¹⁶

Recruiters utilize many advertising methods to assist, contact, and recruit high-quality individuals. One

of the most valuable tools is advertising via television, radio, newspapers, magazines, and direct mail. The Army advertising budget peaked in 1989 at 73.2 million dollars. The Army's program is by far the largest budget of all the services, representing about two-thirds of the individual services' total. This is a reflection of two things: the size of recruiting requirements for the Army which equals about one-half of all the services accessions, and the Army's historical difficulties in securing its desired level of qualified recruits.¹⁷

Recruiting difficulties stem from how potential recruits view the Army. Of all the services, the Army is seen as least likely to train them in a marketable skill, more likely to impose unreasonable restrictions on private life, and more likely to place them in dangerous situations. The Army is currently devoting advertising resources to alter these perceptions and is achieving some results. The 1992 Youth Attitude Tracking Study (YATS) revealed that youths had an expectation of skill training opportunities in the Army equal to what they believed was available in the Air Force. Youth attitudes regarding Army service are largely dependant on advertising messages.

Most recruiting advertising is done through national or centralized media purchases. The Army uses these media to disseminate messages intended to enhance its image and to describe in general terms the jobs, training, and benefits

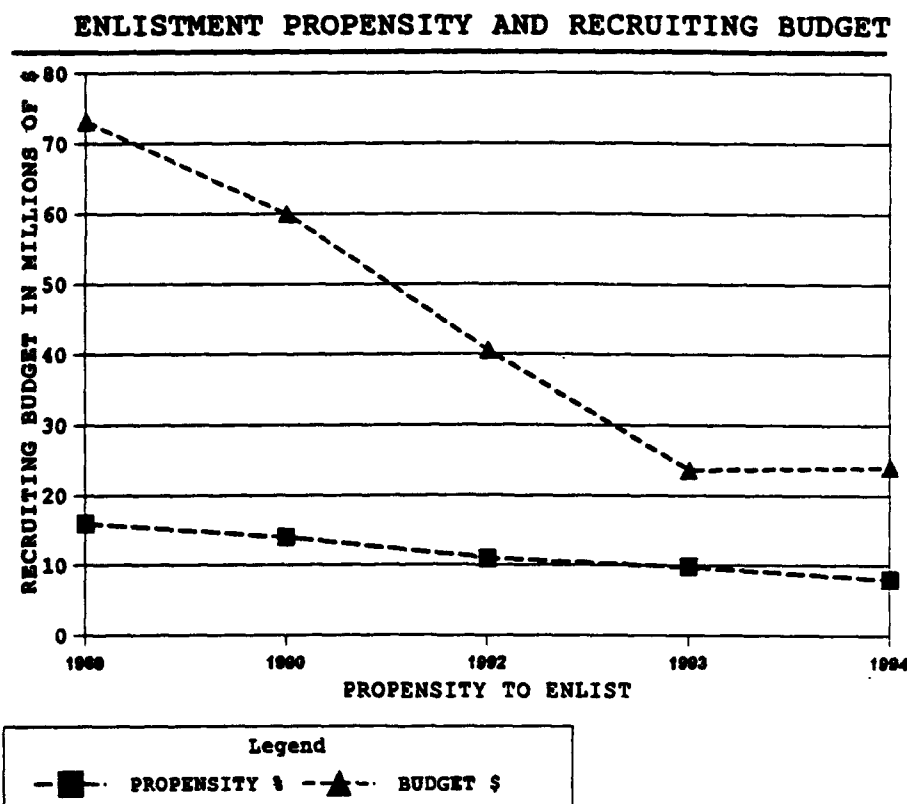
it has to offer. The Army also uses local media assets to target specific groups and make the nation's youth aware of opportunities, enlistment options, and the names and phone numbers of recruiters in the area. USAREC uses local advertising as a way to supplement the national campaign, especially in remote areas not penetrated by national advertising. Typically, local advertising, such as billboards, posters in schools, and recruiting brochures account for about ten-to-fifteen percent of the Army's total advertising budget.¹⁸

Recruiting strategies are tailored to national and local economic conditions. For example, if economic conditions are poor, advertising may not need to concentrate on current enlistment propensities, but instead focus on building a foundation for future enlistments. When enlistment propensity drops, advertising concentrates on current enlistment requirements and emphasizes immediate benefits of enlistment such as pay and travel instead of the long-term educational benefits.¹⁹

In 1989, when the Army's advertising budget was \$73 million dollars, positive propensity to enlist by the targeted high-quality youth stood at about 16 percent. By 1992 USAREC's advertising budget stood at \$40.6 million and positive enlistment propensity had fallen to 11 percent. A reduction in 1993 of almost 100 percent of appropriated advertising dollars to \$23.6 million has seen a further

reduction in overall enlistment propensity to less than 10 percent.²⁰ Clearly a strong relationship between advertising dollars and positive propensity to enlist exists. See Table 3.

TABLE 3



Source: USAREC, State of the Command Brief, (Fort Knox: United States Army Recruiting Command, 1993), 42.

Research shows that national and local advertising programs are the most effective and cost efficient in recruiting high-quality recruits, while regional advertising is relatively inefficient. The cost of recruiting one high

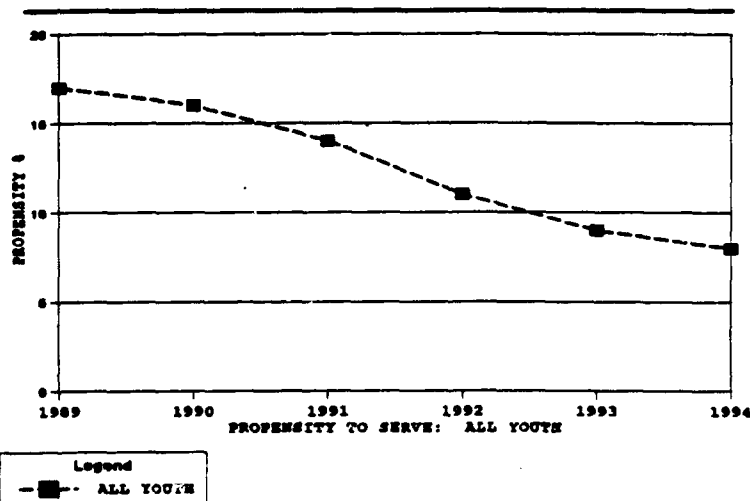
quality enlistee through the national media is approximately \$5000. The associated cost of recruiting that same high quality enlistee with no national advertising, utilizing only recruiter contact is approximately \$5,700.²¹ The majority of the 13 percent increase in cost is the result of recruiters driving more miles, increased telephone usage, and heavier reliance on direct mailing of recruitment brochures. Given the significant reduction in advertising budget dollars and the related reduction in recruiter strength, it is unlikely that personal contact by recruiters will compensate for declining positive enlistment propensity rates.

In contrast to the Army's recruiting system and its diminishing resources, the national service programs have a potentially robust advertising system. It is in the best interests of universities to make prospective students aware of the monetary and educational benefits provided by the national service program. Colleges and universities possess recruiting systems of their own, and national service is another asset they have to assist students in funding higher education. Additionally, volunteer organizations are likely to use the benefits of national service as a means of recruitment. It is in their best interest to obtain quality assistance for their organizations at little or reduced cost.

As propensity to enlist declines, USAREC is finding it more difficult to meet its enlistment quotas for both quantity and quality. Indications are that declining propensity to serve in the Army is due to the end of the Cold War, improving youth employment opportunities, and a perceived loss of job opportunities in the Army because of the drawdown.²² There is also concern about the inherent risks of military service, an apparent backlash from Operation Desert Storm. Over the past three years the propensity to enlist for Army service has declined by almost one-third.²³ See Table 4.

TABLE 4

PROPENSITY TO ENLIST

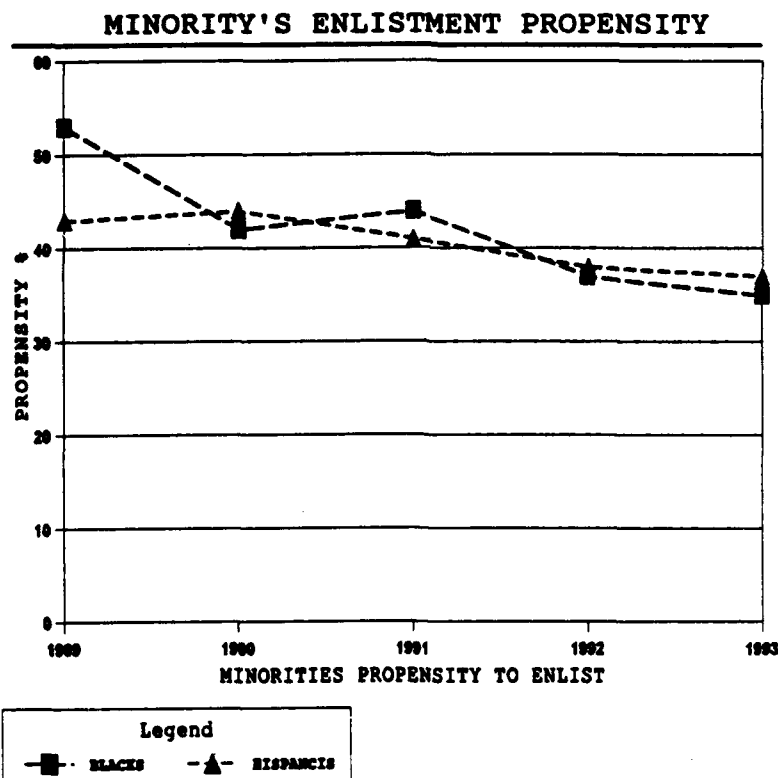


Source: USAREC, State of The Command Brief, (Fort Knox: United States Army Recruiting Command, 1993), 44.

Among black youth prospects in particular, although they still are more receptive to military service than

whites, the propensity to enlist has declined by almost half, while Hispanics propensity has declined only slightly.²⁴ The Army will find it increasingly more difficult to meet its quality recruitment goals as the number of individuals in the youth pool declines, propensity to serve continues to erode, and the requirement for technically oriented recruits increases. See Table 5.

TABLE 5



Source: USAREC, State of The Command Brief, (Fort Knox: United States Army Recruiting Command, 1993), 46.

USAREC's recruitment mission for FY 1993 was 76,900 individuals. Achieved enlistments in 1993 actually exceeded this goal with 77,893 recruits entering active duty; a

sacrifice in quality goals of accepting 2 percent CAT IVs made this possible. USAREC's State of the Command Brief, of 24 September 1993 outlines these facts, but caveats them by saying:

USAREC's biggest challenge in 1993 was convincing young people that we were in fact still hiring. Faced with news stories of continuing drawdown of the military services, most young people either believed we were not hiring or that there was no longer a future in the Army. In spite of shrinking resources and a harder sell, we once again accomplished the mission.²⁵

As a logical extension of its mission, USAREC is the Army's responsible agency for enlistment advertising. Available advertising resources amounted to 23.6 million dollars in FY 1993, an amount determined to be insufficient to meet recruitment missions. In an attempt to compensate for this dilemma, USAREC redirected 4.1 million dollars internally to obtain limited TV advertising during NFL and college football in 1994.²⁶

Former Secretary of Defense, Les Aspin, concerned about quality declines in enlistments stated recently that, "he hoped to arrest that trend, raising the amount spent to recruit each new service member from \$5,500 per recruit to \$5,800 next year."²⁷ A request is before Congress to provide an additional \$30 million to USAREC for advertising in FY 1994, but its approval is in doubt.

Since the inception of the all-volunteer force in the 1970s, until 1992, the Army had been recruiting high-quality young people in increasing numbers. Increases in

high-quality recruits were reflected not only in total numbers relative to accessions, but also in the proportionality of recruits scoring higher on the AFQT. Young people who qualify mentally for highly technical occupations comprise the "high-quality military recruit market." This market is likely to be the focal point for the military recruiting process.

Recruiting success in the 1990s may not equal that enjoyed by the Army in the 1980s. A projected decline in the size and quality of youth population in the mid-1990s presents a significant challenge to the Army in meeting its recruitment goals. Complicating this equation is the general deterioration of the quality and quantity of the available youth pool.

Industry, government and universities monitor the quality of graduates' cognitive and literacy skills who are entering the work force. Skills possessed by workers affect the bottom line of a company's profitability and the United States's ability to compete effectively in the world market place. A commission of the National Science Board recently concluded that the quality of education has become one of the principal issues in contemporary America:

Across the United States, there is escalating awareness that our educational systems are facing inordinate difficulties in trying to meet the needs of the Nation in our changing and increasingly technological society. We appear to be raising a generation of Americans, many of whom lack the understanding and the skills necessary to

participate fully in the technological world in which they live and work.²⁸

American scholastic achievements have declined steadily over the last three decades. The most used measure of academic quality is the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT). In 1963, the average score on the verbal section of the test was 478 and 502 on the mathematics portion; by 1991 the verbal score had slipped to 422 and math to 466. See Table 6.

TABLE 6
SAT SCORES

	UNIT	1963	1985	1990	1991
VERBAL	POINT	478	431	424	422
MATH		502	475	474	466

Source: Statistical Abstract of the United States,
(Washington D.C: U.S. Department of Commerce, 1993), 380.

The National Commission on Excellence in Education identified other problems: about 50 million American adults are functionally illiterate by the simplest tests of every day reading, writing, and comprehension and many seventeen year olds do not possess "higher order" intellectual skills. Nearly 40 percent of this group cannot draw inferences from written material. Only a fifth can write a persuasive essay, only a third can solve mathematical problems requiring several steps.²⁹ Additionally, fewer students

with high school diplomas are entering the labor force. Forecasts indicate that their level of intellectual achievement will also be lower.³⁰ The Federal Office of Technology Assessment estimates that 20 to 30 percent of the work force is currently deficient in the skills required to perform effectively in the work place. This compares to the reported 10 to 15 percent in the 1970s.³¹ According to Binkin:

The implications of the decline in the abilities of the youth population for the Army are clear: it means that a smaller proportion of the pool of prospective volunteers possess the background to be trained in technical skills that are becoming increasingly desirable for a range of military jobs. On top of this, the youth pool will be shrinking in size as the "baby bust" runs its course, and its composition will be changing as disadvantaged social groups, traditionally with lower aptitude scores for technical training, constitute a larger proportion of the youth population.³²

Coupled with the decline in quality of the targeted youth pool is a corresponding reduction in its size.

Changes in size of the youth population pool shows a downward trend in the number of eighteen year olds, the primary target group for Army recruiters. In 1981 the size of the youth pool started a decline that will continue until 1995. The eighteen year old pool size begins to increase again after 1995 by approximately 25,000 a year; a trend expected to last at least until 2010. However, before the upturn, the size of the eighteen year old male population will drop from a high of 2.2 million in 1980 to 1.7 million in 1994.³³ See Table 7.

TABLE 7

TARGETED YOUTH POPULATION



Source: Population Projections of the United States, by Age, Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1992 to 2050, (Washington D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1992).

Another factor affecting the youth population is the social composition of the U.S. population. Minority groups constitute an increasing proportion of the youth population, a result of higher fertility rates among minority women and the immigration of non-whites into the United States.³⁴

Changes in population composition will affect the number of young males expected to qualify for military service. Blacks and Hispanics have historically been less successful than whites at meeting the educational and aptitude requirements for entry into the Army. In 1980, 76

percent of white males had completed high school by the age of 25, compared with 59 percent of black men and 54 percent of Hispanic males. High school completion data for 1993 reflects that white male graduation rates have held constant, while the minority graduation rates fell to 56 and 53 percent respectively. AFQT scores demonstrated a wide disparity among categories of males who qualified for service in the Army. Only 83 percent of whites, 41 percent of blacks and 53 percent of Hispanic males were eligible for Army enlistment.³⁵ If these differences in educational achievement and aptitude remain constant and military standards do not change, the number of eighteen year old males expected to meet basic enlistment standards equals 1.1 million eligible in 1994. The decline could be even greater in the eligibility rates for highly technical occupations, since minorities have been at a particular disadvantage in qualifying for training that requires higher composite scores in the mechanical and electronics occupations. Additionally, minorities are demonstrating less propensity to serve in the Army.³⁶

Of the 1.7 million eighteen year old youth in the pool in 1994, only 550,000 of them can be classified as available for recruiting as I-III A applicants. Based on past statistics, about 550,000 of the 1.7 million will be "dedicated" college students with little or no propensity to serve in an enlisted status, leaving only 1.1 million

eligible for recruitment. Of that pool of 1.1 million, 600,000 will be ineligible for recruitment because many of them have been incarcerated or possess certain physical, mental, and moral deficiencies. The remaining individuals of this group do not possess a high school degree, have some form of prior service, or would fail to score in the upper mental categories I-III on the AFQT. In 1994, the military services together must recruit approximately 250,000 young people, or slightly less than one in two of eligible and interested youth.³⁷ To reach the soldiers it requires, the Army targets recruiting efforts at those high-quality, individuals who can operate complex systems effectively.

Army recruiters have many tools at their disposal to attract high-quality youth. Tangible benefits offered are pay, educational benefits and health care. Monetary reimbursement consists of three elements: base pay, a monthly housing allowance (if the soldier resides off the military installation or if married) and a subsistence allowance. Additionally, enlisted soldiers receive an annual clothing allowance to purchase uniforms, and if they reside off-post in high-cost-of-living areas, a variable housing allowance that attempts to offset the expense of off-post housing. For a typical unmarried two year enlistee, living on post, average annual gross base pay equals approximately \$6500. A soldier living on post does not receive a housing or subsistence allowance since the Army provides quarters

and meals at no cost. Thus, soldiers forfeit approximately \$550 monthly in lieu of rations and quarters allowances. Total compensation including pay, allowances, and health care for an unmarried soldier equates to approximately \$17,500 per annum for a two year enlistee.³⁸

The Montgomery GI Bill provides educational benefits for the soldier. Participating soldiers contribute \$100 a month of base pay for twelve months into a federally managed trust fund. Upon successful completion of a two year enlistment and full contribution of \$1200 by the soldier, post-secondary educational benefits equal \$11,700. After subtracting the soldier's contribution of \$1200 the realized educational benefit is \$10,500.³⁹ Tangible benefits provide the most attractive and visible inducements to a potential recruit.

Recruiters also emphasize the intangible benefits of Army service. Acquiring discipline, opportunities for travel, chance to gain a skill, civic pride, and patriotism are all benefits emphasized by recruiters to get an individual to enlist.⁴⁰ Those tangible and intangible benefits comprise the Army's arsenal of incentives available to attract high-quality recruits as it competes with the civilian labor market, other services, and universities. National service programs and, in particular, the National and Community Service Act of 1993, adds another and more

detrimental aspect of competition for the Army in its endeavour to recruit high-quality individuals.

National service was first presented as a concept in 1910 by William James in an essay entitled "The Moral Equivalent of War." He was the first to propose utilizing American youth to tackle societal problems. He advocated conscripting youth into "an army enlisted against nature"

. . .to coal mines and iron mines to freight trains, to fishing fleets in December, to dishwashing, clothes washing and window washing, to road building and tunnel making, to foundries and stoke holes, and to the frames of skyscrapers would our gilded youths be drafted off, according to their choice, to get the childishness knocked out of them and to come back into society with healthier sympathies and soberer ideas.⁴¹

This idea proved popular at first; however, it has proven to be rife with controversy. Today, supporters and opponents come from both sides of the political/ideological spectrum. For example, Senators Sam Nunn (D-GA) and Edward Kennedy (D-MA) support the plan. Their reasoning is that national service provides an additional means to finance post-secondary education and instills a sense of civic pride in participants. Representative Robert Stump (R-AZ) and Senator Bob Dole (R-KS) are among those who oppose national service. They argue that the national service program adds another unneeded agency to the federal bureaucracy, and that national service education benefits outweigh those available to soldiers.⁴²

According to sociologist Williamson M. Evers, opposing national service are: classical liberals and conservatives who emphasize individual rights, constitutional protectors, and free market economics; and welfare-state liberals who emphasize individual rights and constitutional protectors. Favoring national service are: conservatives who emphasize civic virtue, citizenship, and serving the political community as the common duty and purpose of all in the society; and those welfare state liberals who emphasize the same things.⁴³

People opposing national service believe that the rights of the individual outweigh his civic obligations to the government and that government should serve to protect and enhance its citizens' welfare. Individuals favoring national service argue that each able-bodied citizen has a civic obligation to his community. They contend, along with the rights and privileges of living in a democratic republic, the individual must subordinate himself to the advancement of society as a whole. While the debate continues, it is apparent that Americans have made a decision regarding national service.

The majority of Americans favor some form of national service. The Gallup organization has frequently conducted polls asking Americans for their opinions on proposed forms of national service. Polls in 1936 reported a 77 percent in-favor rating. In 1987 it was reportedly 83

percent in favor. The approval rating has remained constant over this fifty year period. A key aspect of both these surveys is that while an overwhelming majority favored national service, no single hypothetical program received an endorsement by a majority.⁴⁴ Americans approve of the national service concept, but are unsure what form it should take.

National service has been contentious and invokes passionate and heated debate. Its popularity tends to ebb and flow with the fiscal and societal difficulties faced by our country. National service is often looked upon as a panacea for dealing with problems that private industry does not care to confront and that government can't afford.

Two examples highlight the development and evolution of national service in the United States. In 1915 a camp at Plattsburg, New York, was established by former Army Chief of Staff General Leonard Wood and former President Theodore Roosevelt. The design of the "Citizens' Military Camp" focused on training young men from the privileged sectors of society to serve as officers in time of war. These young men gave their time and paid their own way to attend this camp. Modeled after military training, a strong undertone of civic duty permeated the camp. Establishers of the camp felt that America needed a moral reawakening and envisioned a series of Plattsburg camps as a way to spark that movement. By 1916 over 16,000 young men were participating

in Plattsburg training. Projected attendance for 1917 exceeded 50,000, however, officials disbanded the camp because of the formation of the American Expeditionary Force, and the United States' decision to join the Allies in World War I. The majority of the volunteers received reserve commissions in the American Expeditionary Force and the remainder enlisted. Serving as Assistant Secretary of the Navy, Franklin Delano Roosevelt, started naval versions of Plattsburg which also ended with the outbreak of World War I. His experience in this fledgling national service program influenced him later when he launched the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC).⁴⁵

Evidenced by his interest in Plattsburg, Roosevelt subscribed to the concept of national service early in his career. In 1933, he established the CCC and set forth its goals including relieving unemployment, cleaning up the environment, and enhancing participants' worth through the discipline and interaction acquired through service. Initially a temporary program, it became permanent in 1935. Most work undertaken by the CCC dealt with public lands and projects. President Roosevelt made a conscious effort to avoid having the CCC compete with private industry. The CCC focused on projects that private industry deemed too costly, or beyond the scope of their capabilities. For the most part, projects included tree planting, soil conservation, flood control, and road building. A typical participant was

an unemployed eighteen to twenty-five year old male. Enrollment was for a minimum of six months and could be renewed in semi-annual terms up to a period of two years. Participants received thirty dollars monthly, as well as food, shelter, and clothing.⁴⁶

The CCC is the defining national service program for the United States. Other national service programs have existed since the inception of the CCC, such as the Peace Corps and Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA). The CCC was the United States' largest national service program experience to date, and provided the basis for the National and Community Service Act of 1993. The presidential campaigns of the 1980s and 90s saw a resurgence in the popularity of some form of national service.

President Clinton announced his advocacy of national service during his election campaign. His initial concept envisioned substituting or partially replacing the current federal student loan program with a national service program that provided an educational benefit.⁴⁷ The goals of President Clinton's national service program were to expand educational opportunity, reward individual responsibilities, and to build the American community by bringing citizens together to tackle common problems.⁴⁸

President Clinton's 1993 national service proposal was essentially an amendment to the National and Community Service Act of 1990. The main portion of the proposal, a

national service program, which he indicated was a key element of his domestic agenda, fulfilled a campaign pledge to revise governmental secondary student aid programs. According to President Clinton, enhanced national service was a way to address three problems: American young people who lacked a sense of civic obligation, high youth unemployment, and increasing secondary educational tuition costs. President Clinton designed the proposal to begin alleviating these problems. The main difference between the 1993 proposal and existing programs was that it provided an educational benefit, (not a benefit under any existing federal program), and expanded the scope and numbers of participants while transferring administrative responsibilities to state agencies.⁴⁹

Proposals for national service have taken many forms prior to the final passage of the 1993 Act. In the late 1970s and early 1980s national service proposals aimed at alleviating Army recruiting difficulties by tying military and national service together. In this scenario a young person would make a choice between serving in the armed forces or participating in a civilian national service program. The goal of these proposals was to ensure the military continued to get its share of quality individuals.⁵⁰

National service proposals took on a new form in 1987, mostly due to an improved military compensation

package. Representative David McCurdy (D-OK) introduced legislation in early 1987 that would have allowed an individual to serve in either the armed forces or a civilian national service program. The design of the bill provided an educational benefit with the military recruit receiving a 30 percent larger benefit than the national service participant.⁵¹ These proposals failed largely because opponents contended that a national service program would create another huge government bureaucracy, and cost money that the government didn't have. Additionally, the education benefits proposed exceeded those available to military volunteers under the Montgomery GI education bill.

Opponents of the 1993 national service proposal offered by President Clinton advanced arguments similar to those used to defeat the earlier national service initiatives. Clinton's proposal called for national service participants to receive \$5000 dollars annually for two years for a total education benefit of \$10,000. In the Senate, Dole (R) Kansas, initiated a filibuster to block passage of the bill. Representative Stump (R) of Arizona, in the House of Representatives led the fight against the bill on the grounds of its unfairness to military personnel. Congress finally reached a compromise by reducing the national service education benefit to 90 percent of that available to Army personnel, and by combining all current federal volunteer organizations under one agency.⁵²

On September 21, 1993, the National and Community Service Act of 1993 became law. The stated purpose of the Act was to instill a sense of civic pride into American youth, allieviate high youth unemployment and provide another means of defraying the high cost of post-secondary education. A new governmental agency, the "Corporation for National Service," created by the Act, will administer the program. The new corporation is responsible for administering all federal programs authorized under the National and Community Service Act of 1993 and Domestic Volunteer Service Act.⁵³ See Figure 2.

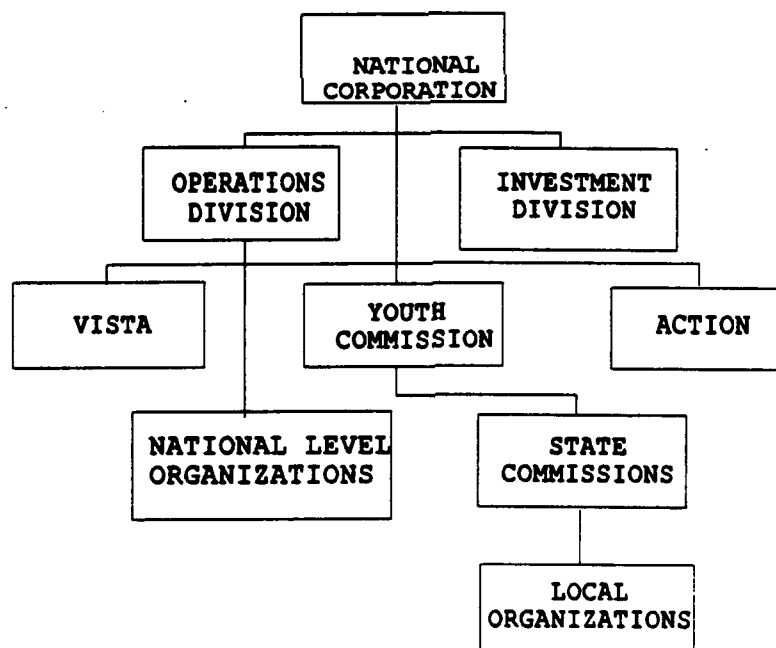


Figure 2. National Service Corporation Organization.

Source: National and Community Service Act 1993, (Washington D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1993).

Two divisions exist within the Corporation: investments and operations. The investment division manages the trust program and other programs administered currently by the Commission on National and Community Service. The operating division administers the three federal programs run currently by the federal National Volunteer Agency (ACTION) including VISTA, National Senior Volunteer Corps, and Serve America.⁵⁴

An eleven-member volunteer board of directors, appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate governs the corporation. The board develops the corporation's strategic plan, approves grant decisions, reviews policy and personnel decisions, receives and acts on reports from the Inspector General, supervises evaluations, and advises the corporation on all issues. A chairperson of the board and a director for both the operating and investment divisions will be full-time employees. An Inspector General monitors programs to guard against fraud and abuse. Various volunteer programs may qualify for participation under national service guidelines.

Eligible institutions take two forms: individual states or nonprofit community or educational organizations. States that decide to participate must establish a state commission on national service. State commissions will prepare an application for program assistance, assist in

disseminating information about the programs, assist in placement of applicants, administer and evaluate grantees, and develop training and curriculum materials. Nonprofit or community and educational programs, such as local adult continuing education programs may participate directly with the national corporation, (in which case they must provide 25 percent of cost) or through state commissions, if they exist in the state that the organization operates in. State commissions have their members appointed by respective Governors and they perform duties similar to the federal corporation. A representative from the national corporation sits on each state commission board as a voting member, and serves as a liaison between the state and federal levels. State commissions play a key role by selecting programs to be funded, recruiting participants, and disseminating information about service opportunities.⁵⁵

State commissions select programs that meet federal and state qualification standards and fall under state jurisdiction. Eligibility for participation depends on numerous criteria. State commissions select programs based on quality, innovation, sustainability, and replicability of programs. The national corporation validates the state commission's decisions on programs selected. Special consideration is given to programs that serve and recruit participants from communities of need, including enterprise zones, community redevelopment areas, high-poverty areas,

and communities affected adversely by decreased defense spending. Programs that may qualify include: youth corps, programs focusing on specific community needs, and campus based service programs. Examples include literacy and tutoring programs which target at-risk students in jeopardy of dropping out of school. Other examples include big-brother and big-sister programs where youth work with children from abusive or single parent households. Programs may be run by non-profit organizations, institutions of higher education, local governments, school districts, and state or federal agencies. Participating programs may not provide direct benefits to for-profit businesses, labor unions, or political organizations, or involve participants in religious activities.⁵⁶

An example of a model national service program is Kansas' state commission on youth service. Kansas has operated a state wide youth service program for two years, and is planning for expansion under the new federal program. The Topeka Youth Project typifies the variety of organizations participating in the Kansas program and is the type expected to enroll in the national program.

Youth in the Topeka program work on community based projects. The participants are organized into groups of ten and assigned a specific task to perform. Examples of environmental projects include grounds maintenance for city parks, litter patrols and planting of shrubbery and flowers.

Recreational projects include organizing community basketball tournaments and bicycle rodeos. Health related tasks involve teaching first aid classes at local community centers. Selected participants receive training in emergency first aid, qualify as emergency medical technicians, and staff emergency vehicles for the city of Topeka as first responders. Other examples of projects include painting of elderly persons' homes, working as day care providers for low-income families, and performing natural disaster reconstruction and clean-up activities.⁵⁷

To be eligible for participation in the program individuals must be seventeen years of age or older. Youth corps participants must be sixteen years of age or older. Participants must be high school graduates or agree to obtain their GED. Individuals may serve before, during, or after post secondary education.⁵⁸

Currently, recruit selection standards are vague. Recruitment and selection of participants is conducted by local programs on a non-discriminating, non-means tested basis. National and state recruitment systems may assist interested individuals in locating positions in local programs. Information about available positions will be distributed by high schools, colleges, and federal placement offices. Terms of service are one or two years, and the value of compensation varies with the term chosen.

Benefits of serving in the program fall into three categories. First, an educational award of \$4725 accrues for each year of service. The educational benefit equals \$9450 upon successful completion of two years national service, an amount which compares favorably to \$10,500 for two years of Army service. Educational awards may be used to repay loans for higher education or to pay for higher education or training. The federal government provides and deposits money for educational awards into a national service trust on behalf of participants accepted into the program. The Corporation directs payment of educational benefits to qualified post-secondary educational institutions, including two and four year colleges, training programs, and graduate or professional programs. Lenders may also receive payments directly to pay off existing educational debt. Awards are not taxable and must be used in five years. Second, participants receive wage stipends. Participants must work a minimum of 1700 hours annually, for a total wage payed by the federal corporation before taxes of \$7,400 annually. State commissions or programs may supplement this amount further, but no federal matching funds will be available. For example, a participating program may choose to double the hourly wage to \$8.50 but will bear the additional cost without federal support. The federal support amounts to an annual equivalent of 85 percent of benefits received by VISTA volunteers. State

commissions provide another 15 percent; the total equals the current federal minimum wage of \$4.25. Finally, participants receive health and child care: All participants receive health insurance coverage with an approximate value of \$2500 a year. Federal dollars pay 85 percent of this cost and states cover the remaining 15 percent. Child care benefits are currently vague, but if required, a participant's childcare costs will be paid while the individual is actually performing service, a benefit equal to approximately \$3000 a year for each child. Childcare benefits are not provided to soldiers as an entitlement. A national service participant's annual total compensation, not including childcare, equals approximately \$14,625.⁵⁹

The National and Community Service Trust Act of 1993 funds the national service program for three years beginning in 1994. First year participants will number approximately 20,000 at a cost of \$379 million federal dollars, equating to a cost of approximately \$18,000 to \$20,000 for each participant. Succeeding years will include an additional 100,000 to 150,000 participants at a projected cumulative cost of \$7.4 billion federal dollars by 1997.

Four factors affect the situation confronting the Army and national service. The employment of increasingly sophisticated weapon systems demands that the Army recruit quality people to operate those systems. A shrinking youth

pool in both size and quality increases competition for quality youth among industry, institutions of higher learning, and the military. While the number of qualified youth continues to fall, the propensity to serve in the military is declining. In conjunction with reduced propensity to serve, recruiting budgets are decreasing in response to declining defense budgets.

Unlike other forms of competition, the youth service provision of the 1993 Act shares many of the same benefits and rewards as the Army. Both offer skill training, opportunity to fulfill a sense of civic duty, and monetary reward. The likely national service participant sees the national service program as a means to achieve these rewards without leaving home, sacrificing personal freedom or being placed in danger. In its first year the National and Community Service Act of 1993 will have a relatively small effect on the quality of the Army. In the out years of 1996 and 1997, this effect will increase significantly as the numbers of participants expands to the expected 150,000.

Literature Review

This section presents a few key works in the area of national service. Much thought, debate, and theorizing have gone into the discussion of national service. Since the first documented proposal by William James, scholars, politicians, and soldiers have written about and studied this issue.

In the past, the military has exhibited an ambivalent attitude toward the concept of national service. Since 1973 and the implementation of the all-volunteer force, the active military has viewed national service as a threat. Some advocates of national service insist that the all-volunteer force can not survive without some type of mandatory or conscripted service program. Significantly increased remuneration, among other factors, is proving them wrong. A controversial subject such as this produces numerous studies related to the subject. No debate on national service can occur without first considering its implications and effect on military manpower. The Department of Defense (DOD) is involved in the national service debate, and the Army leads the services because of its need for more recruits and its historical difficulty in achieving its manpower quality and quantity objectives.

The review of literature reveals that three basic arguments exist in the debate over national service and service in the military. The first argues that any national service program must include the military as an option for serving, with participants receiveing the same compensation regardless of the option chosen. This view envisions the military as an asset available for meeting the social goals of civic obligation, training of youth, and reducing youth unemployment. The second argument is that if national service is a reality, then the military must be a part of

national service to ensure continued acquisition of quality individuals for the services. Some type of oversight system would ensure that sufficient quantities of quality individuals would enter the military. This argument for national service envisions a type of universal service where all youth serve some undetermined time in service to the country. This type of national service would essentially end the all-volunteer military and result in a conscription type force. The third argument, and the one set forth by DOD and many members of Congress, is that the all-volunteer force should remain separate from national service, and that enlisting in the military should result in benefits exceeding those of civilian service, thereby ensuring that quality individuals continue to join the military.

DOD sponsors numerous studies to measure youth propensity to serve in the military. The Youth Attitude Tracking Study (YATS) is an annual survey initiated by DOD and executed by the Defense Manpower Data Center. Conducted nationally, the survey uses computer assisted telephone interviewing methodology (CATI) and requires approximately thirty minutes to complete. CATI interviews approximately 10,000 males and females between sixteen to twenty-four years of age annually. The survey design ensures a cross section of United States demographics with 76 percent of respondents being white, 14 percent Black, 7 percent Hispanic, and 2 percent other.

The survey asks questions about a youth's likelihood of serving in the U.S. Armed Forces, including the Army. The YATS adjusts the nature and type of questions annually to reflect current national events and social influences. For instance, the 1990 YATS concentrated on enlistment propensity based on the ongoing events in Southwest Asia. The 1991-92 YATS addressed questions to survey participants regarding national service and provides data for analysis in chapter four of this thesis.

The National Longitudinal Survey of Youth Labor Force Behavior Study (NLSY) measures youth propensity for a variety of career paths and quantifies age, racial makeup, and economic status by demographic region down to the county level in the United States.

Congress initiated a one time study in 1978 titled National Service Programs and Their Effects on Military Manpower and Civilian Youth Problems. This study was designed to measure the effects of three prototypical National Service Program options and their expected impact on military enlistment, youth unemployment, and training. Additionally, it attempted to predict effects of the alternative programs and the competition they would pose for the military. This report provides data that, while dated, relates to the current national service program.

USAREC conducted a survey in the spring of 1990 entitled the 1990 Survey of High School Youth and Parents.

Its design provided the Army with the relative appeal among high school juniors, seniors, and parents between proposed national service programs, comparing community with military service and their propensity to choose one over the other. The data reflecting propensity to serve in the Army versus national service is inferable for the situation existing today.

The findings of the 1990 survey indicated that high-quality students are more likely to choose community service over military service. More importantly, parents believe that community service is preferable to military service, even when military service provides superior monetary and educational benefits.

The Rand Corporation publishes and conducts numerous studies for DOD regarding military manpower issues and the effectiveness of the Army's recruiting efforts. Recruiting Effects of Army Advertising analyzes the effects of Army advertising on recruiting. This report provides quantitative estimates of the relative effectiveness of different categories of media expenditures in producing enlistments in the Army. It is useful in determining the effects of a reduced advertising budget, and its correlation to a reduction in the propensity of individuals to enlist.

Enlistment Among Applicants for Military Service is another Rand research project designed to provide information on the factors that lead non-prior service

applicants to enlist. This report is useful for determining the relative importance of benefits offered to potential enlistees. Results indicated that despite the interest in military service that application for enlistment implies, nearly half of all high-quality male applicants do not enlist. Even after submitting an enlistment application, civilian job opportunities, social support for enlisting, college plans, and finances have substantial effects on the enlistment decisions of young men.

The National and Community Service Act of 1993 as written in H.R. 2010 and finally approved by the House and Senate of the U.S. Congress describes the national service program by outlining the structure and benefits associated with service. It also describes qualification criteria for organizations desiring to participate in the program ,as well as the organizational structure of the National Service Corporation.

Martin Binkin's Military Technology and Defense Manpower discusses and analyzes an average recruit's ability to operate and support technologically advanced weapon systems. This research focuses on emerging technologies, and questions whether military hardware has become so complex that the armed services will find it impossible to recruit quality individuals to operate them. He also discusses the principal manpower management alternatives:

expanding the role of women, substituting civilians, retaining more personnel, and returning to conscription.

Laurence and Ramsberger's Low-Aptitude Men in the Military analyzes the effects of recruiting low-aptitude individuals, both from the aspect of the impact on the individual and the effects on the military. This study describes the implications of recruiting low quality individuals into the military. Research shows that lower quality individuals are harder to train, have more difficulty comprehending complex tasks, and are less likely to complete their enlistment terms. They conclude that unless manpower needs are pressing, there is little reason to believe that the military would want low-quality individuals, nor should they be forced to accept them.

The Military Specialist by Harold Wool provides an analysis of the factors that brought about the existing pattern of increasing requirements for technical specialists in the military. Wool pays particular attention to developments between World War II and 1968, when the modern specialist system became fully established. Wool also discusses the socio-economic motives for entering and staying in military service. His conclusions relate to the determination and relative importance of factors that affect an individual's decision to enlist in the military.

Numerous doctoral and master theses exist dealing with national service and its effect on the military. For

example, Sharro's, "The Proposal For A National Service Corps as Contained in S.3/H.R. 660 and Its Implications for the Army," is an analysis of the effect that a 1989 proposal for a national service corporation would have had on the Army. This study analyzed the implications of national service incorporated with service in the Army. Military service as a part of national service was a key element of the 1989 proposal. Sharro identified the main effect of national service as presenting competition between military and civilian options. He determined that youth would see civilian service as more attractive than military service, despite the fact that the 1989 proposal had an educational benefit differential of \$4000.00, with military service being more beneficial. The 1989 proposal posed less risk to the Army than the 1993 Act does because it allowed for service in the military as an option to satisfy a national service commitment. Young people face an either-or option with the creation of the National and Community Service Act of 1993 Act which provides a near equal benefit package for community service versus serving in the Army.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS

Introduction

Chapter 3 defined the environment and factors affecting the extent of the impact that national service will have on the Army's ability to acquire high-quality recruits. This chapter will identify the factors that influence youths when they are making career decisions. It will also analyze the historical and current decisions youths are making and analyze the choices they will make given the option of serving in the military or a national service program. Finally, given the national and military service environment, it will analyze the effect that youths' decisions will have on the Army's ability to obtain high-quality recruits.

Three questions must be answered in order to analyze the effect the national service option will have on youths when making a career decision. These questions are: (1). What factors influence youths in their career decision making process? (2). Historically, what career decisions have high-quality young people indicated they would make, given a choice between national service and serving in the Army? (3). What are the career choices that high-quality

youth are currently saying they will make? The answers to these questions, when considered in the previously discussed environment, will allow for an analysis of the effect that competition from national service will have on the Army's ability to recruit quality soldiers.

Factors Influencing Youth's Career Decisions

Six factors affect a potential recruit's decision in making career choices. These six factors, divided into the two broad categories of economic and non-economic, have remained constant over time. Economic factors include: economic advancement (which includes potential retirement benefits), money, and educational grants. Non-economic factors include: self-improvement or job training, military service, and opportunity to travel. These six factors exert both positive and negative motivations for youth when making career decisions.¹

To monitor these enlistment motivation factors, USAREC conducts routine surveys of new and potential recruits. Recruits complete a "new recruit" survey upon arrival at reception stations. This survey provides USAREC with the means to determine current enlistment motivational factors and measure the relative importance placed on those factors by enlistees. Another survey, the Youth Attitude Tracking Survey (YATS), administered annually to high school juniors and seniors, determines career motivation factors. These combined surveys form the basis for USAREC to build

its recruiting strategy, target its recruiting efforts, and structure its advertising campaigns.

Over time the reasons for enlistment have remained constant while their relative importance has fluctuated. This constancy is due to young people acting out of self-interest. While the factors remain constant overall, their importance fluctuates by AFQT category. In the new recruit survey of 1982-83, recruits with higher AFQT scores (CAT I and IIs), said that the most important reason for their enlistment was to obtain funding to attend college. This compares with CAT III recruits who said that they enlisted to "get trained in a skill." CAT IV recruits were more likely to report that the most important reason for their enlistment was that they were "unemployed" or desired to obtain "skill training."² See Table 8.

TABLE 8

FACTORS INFLUENCING CAREER CHOICES (NEW RECRUIT SURVEY)

REASON FOR ENLISTMENT	CAT I & II	CAT IIIA	CAT IIIB	CAT IV
SKILL TRAINING	23.5%	27.2%	34.4%	28.8%
MONEY FOR COLLEGE	30.8%	21.1%	8.7%	10.6%
UNEMPLOYED	9.5%	9.6%	12.5%	22.3%
ECONOMIC ADVANCE	5.3%	5.4%	7.7%	5.8%
MILITARY SERVICE	1.0%	1.8%	1.4%	1.0%
TRAVEL	4.1%	3.7%	5.2%	3.4%
OTHER	25.8%	31.2%	32.1%	28.1%

Source: Rebecca M. Pliske, Timothy W. Elig, and Richard M. Johnson, Towards an Understanding of Army Enlistment Motivation Patterns, (Santa Monica, CA.: The Rand Corporation, 1986), 7.

The 1990 YATS confirmed the findings of the new recruit survey of 1982-1983. The results in Table 9 show that the enlistment motivation of recruits is consistent with their plans after enlistment. For example, 27 percent of those choosing, "to get trained in a skill" said they would seek civilian employment on completion of their enlistment. Similarly, 45 percent of the recruits who plan to go to college after their enlistment chose "money for college" as their most important reason for enlistment. See Table 9.

TABLE 9

REASONS FOR ENLISTING BASED ON AFTER-ENLISTMENT PLANS (YATS)

REASON FOR ENLISTMENT	CIVILIAN Employment	COLLEGE	VO/TECH	CAREER ARMY
SKILL TRAINING	27.6%	11.4%	18.5%	18.9%
COLLEGE MONEY	6.7%	45.7%	21.05	6.9%
UNEMPLOYED	15.9%	3.9%	9.5%	6.8%
ECONOMIC ADVANCE	8.9%	4.9%	9.5%	5.7%

Source: USAREC, Youth Attitude Tracking Study, (Fort Knox: United States Army Recruiting Command, 1990).

The factors found in the new recruit survey of 1982-83 have remained constant. YATS surveys conducted between 1990 and 1993 show that youth continue to enlist for the reasons discussed above.³ The YATS for 1990 showed that although "skill training" remained the most significant reason to consider enlistment, its importance had declined. "Money for college education" continued to be the second most important consideration when making a career decision.⁴

In 1990 the YATS also reported that 30 percent of the eighteen year old youth who were positively propensed to enlist in the Army, were in CATs I and II. CAT IIIs comprised 47 percent of those expressing a positive propensity to enlist. The remaining 23 percent fell into the CAT IV and V ranges.⁵ Furthermore, the 1992-93 YATS reinforced findings reported since 1982, which indicated

that youths continue to emphasize the same reasons for enlisting, with "skill training" ranking first and "money for college" second, but continuing to gain in importance.⁶

To monitor the current factors influencing the career decisions of youths, USAREC asks recruits at reception stations to rate the importance of 28 reasons for enlisting. For each reason, recruits indicate whether it was "not at all important," "somewhat important," "very important," or "I would not have enlisted except for this reason." Reasons that received the highest importance ratings of "very important," and "I would not have enlisted except for this reason," are found in table 10 by AFQT category.⁷

TABLE 10

REASONS FOR ENLISTING BY AFQT CATEGORY (NEW RECRUIT SURVEY)

REASONS FOR ENLISTMENT	CAT I & II	CAT IIIA	CAT IIIB	CAT IV
SKILL TRAINING	48.0%	56.2%	62.1%	62.3%
MONEY FOR COLLEGE	62.1%	55.4%	36.7%	37.3%
CHANCE TO BETTER MYSELF	67.5%	69.6%	70.7%	71.0%
ECONOMIC ADVANCE	20.5%	25.3%	28.0%	29.1%

Source: USAREC, New Recruit Survey, (Fort Knox: United States Army Recruiting Command, 1993).

Recruits from the lowest AFQT category are more likely to rate "skill training" as a very important reason for enlisting. The recruits from AFQT categories I and II are more likely to say that "money for college" is very important.⁸ Clearly, recruits from the lower AFQT categories place more importance on near-term economic motivators and obtaining skills, while those in the higher categories value "money for college." Since the majority of young people who indicate a positive interest in the military are high-quality individuals, and "money for college" is the most important factor high-quality youth consider when making a career choice, the Army must offer educational benefits as an enlistment incentive to attract high-quality individuals. When the national service program, by design, provides educational grants as an incentive it represents a direct form of competition with the Army for high-quality individuals.

Just as there are positive reasons for making career decisions there are also negative influences. USAREC has identified five reasons that exert a negative influence over youth when making enlistment decisions, they include: commitment duration, aversion to military lifestyle, danger, morals, and education.⁹ These five factors reflect the influence of current national and international events. An example that demonstrates the impact of international events on enlistment propensity is the United States'

experience in 1991 during Operation Desert Shield/Storm, as compared to 1992.¹⁰ See Table 11.

TABLE 11
NEGATIVE ENLISTMENT INFLUENCES



Source: USAREC, State of the Command Brief,
(Fort Knox: United States Army Recruiting
Command, 1993).

A more recent international event, turmoil in the Balkans, prompted USAREC to ask potential recruits if United States involvement would affect their enlistment choice. Twenty-seven percent said that involvement would increase their likelihood of enlisting, while 35 percent said it

would decrease their desire to enlist. Clearly, current events affect youths propensity to enlist in the Army.

International events are only one element effecting the enlistment propensity of youth. As previously discussed, the critical element of maintaining positive enlistment propensity is recruitment advertising. Since 1989 recruiting funds have been declining. When this decline is combined with the Army's increasing involvement in international regional conflicts and the competition from national service, it is unlikely that USAREC will be able to halt the decline in enlistment propensity.¹¹

Over the past fifteen years USAREC has shown that the factors influencing the career decisions of American youth are numerous, and cover a wide spectrum of economic and non-economic elements. Six positive and five negative elements continue to represent the main considerations of youth when making career decisions. While the relative importance of these factors fluctuates over time, the factors remain constant.

Youth's Historical Preferences Regarding National Service

The Army experienced significant shortfalls in 1988 and 1989 in recruiting the required number of qualified enlistees, after successfully meeting or exceeding its recruiting goals during the period 1980-87. In the last quarter of calendar year 1988, the Army was not able to meet its enlistment goals. The recruiting year of 1989 was also

difficult. However, through downward adjustment of enlistment quotas and the acceptance of lower quality volunteers, as previously discussed in chapter 3, accession goals were finally met.

USAREC attributed recruiting difficulties to a declining youth population and a reduced recruiting budget. In 1990 USAREC initiated a study of high school youth and parents concerning their perceptions about Army service. The survey asked for parents' opinions because prior research had shown that parents remain the primary influencing force for the career decisions of young people.¹² The USAREC sponsored survey was designed to quantify and further identify why youth were choosing not to enlist. Among other questions, the survey measured the potential reaction of youth and parents to the proposed McCurdy National and Community Service Act of 1990.¹³

The survey questioned students and parents about their attitudes toward the proposed Act of 1990, and the relative appeal of the alternatives contained in that proposal. Options in that proposed legislation consisted of: one year full-time national service in return for an educational grant of \$5,000, or three years of part-time service at \$6,000 versus the two years of military service at \$17,000. The survey tested the assertion made by opponents of national service, that national service would undermine the All-Volunteer Army by attracting high-quality

candidates away from the military and into civic service. The survey evaluated the relative appeal of these various proposals among high school students and parents to learn how these groups reacted to the various alternate enlistment offers. Simultaneously, the survey design allowed for the measurement of general attitudes of high school students and their parents to service in the military and in the Army in particular.

The first question asked, relevant to this thesis, queried students on their plans concerning post-graduation. Closely resembling the results from the YATS propensity survey of 1990, 18 percent of the youth said they would be interested in joining the military. Of particular note, 22 percent of the low-quality students answered that they would be joining the military. Only 15 percent of those in the high-quality category expressed the same desire, reinforcing the trend that high-quality youths are less interested in military service than those in CAT IV. The 11 percent of those that were college bound and showed an interest in the military were largely ROTC participants for officer candidacy and therefore not used for this study.¹⁴ See Table 12.

TABLE 12

POST-GRADUATION PLANS

	<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>QUALITY</u> <u>HIGH</u>	<u>CAT IV</u>	<u>COLLEGE BOUND/ FINANCIAL AID</u>
GOING TO SCHOOL	76%	86%	66%	94%
WORKING	68%	62%	64%	62%
JOIN MILITARY	18%	15%	22%	11%
MARRIAGE	1%	1%	1%	1%
OTHER	3%	3%	3%	2%

Source: 1990 Survey of High School Youth and Parents,
(Washington D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1990).

Of all the youth surveyed, 76 percent said they intended to go to college or vocational post secondary training results which closely parallel those of Martin Binkin's discussed previously.¹⁵ These results confirm those of the previous studies including the new recruit and YATS surveys. Money for education is central to youth's decision making criteria, especially those in the high-quality AFQT categories who are more likely to choose college attendance over military service.

The second section of the USAREC survey measured the youth attitudes regarding the military and the Army in particular.¹⁶ When high-quality youths were asked what branch of service they would choose if joining the military, 34 percent said they would join the Air Force compared to 14 percent who would join the Army.¹⁷ See Table 13.

TABLE 13

PREFERRED BRANCH OF SERVICE

BASE	TOTAL %	HIGH-QUALITY
AIR FORCE	33	34
ARMY	17	14
MARINES	16	13
NAVY	16	16
NOT SURE	19	20

Source: 1990 Survey of High School Youth and Parents, (Washington D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1990).

Student Reaction to National and Community Service

USAREC's 1990 survey presented three varied types of community service to the youth. One option closely resembled that of the current National and Community Service Act. The survey presented each respondent with the following description: Under the proposed National and Community Service Act, a high school graduate who volunteered for community service (like working in a day-care center, park service, or as a teacher's aide) would be eligible for educational grants. These grants would total \$5,000 for each year of full-time community service up to \$10,000 for two years. The monetary difference in educational grants between this proposed national service plan and the Act of 1993 amounts to only \$550, making the results from this question relevant to the current national

service program. The Act of 1993 provides \$9,450 as an education benefit, compared to the \$10,000 provided in the 1990 McCurdy proposal and \$10,500 by the Army.¹⁸

When asked whether students thought that the National and Community Service Act was a good idea, 69 percent of the high-quality students agreed that it was. Significantly, of those positively propensed toward the Army 61 percent answered that national service was a good idea.¹⁹ This result is not surprising since these individuals believe, by their indicated interest in military service, that service in any form is a good idea. It is apparent that any form of service would be viewed positively by those displaying a desire previously to serve, and any potential means of service will compete with those already in existence.

Among high-quality youths with a positive propensity to serve in the Army, Army service finishes ahead of national service by only a slim margin: 35 percent say that they would choose full-time Army service over national service, while 34 percent would opt for national service versus military service. Thirty-four percent represents the potential loss of youth who, although positively propensed to serve in the Army, would choose national service if given a choice. Among youths of high-quality, 40 percent would choose national service compared to only 10 percent who would choose military service when given an option. These

responses show that a national service program presents an attractive alternative to many young people who might otherwise enlist in the military, and specifically the Army.²⁰ See Table 14.

TABLE 14
PREFERRED FORM OF SERVICE AMONG YOUTH PREFERRING MILITARY SERVICE

BASE	TOTAL%	HIGH-QUALITY%	POSITIVE PROPENSITY TO SERVE: ARMY%
FULL-TIME MILITARY SERVICE	11	10	35
NATIONAL SERVICE	37	40	34
WOULD NOT SERVE	24	25	6
NOT SURE	28	5	25

Source: 1990 Survey of High School Youth and Parents, (Washington D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1990).

When presented with dollar amounts of educational grants associated with varying terms of service, high-quality youth displayed a desire to choose national service. Youths made this choice despite the educational grant for military service exceeding that provided by the national service proposal. Youths were given the following scenario:

If you were eligible for grants of \$5,000 for one year or \$10,000 for two years of full-time national service, or \$6,000 for three years of part-time national service, compared to \$17,000 for two years or \$22,000 for three years of full-time military service, which would you choose?

After examining the dollar amounts associated with each term of service, the percentage of high-quality students choosing military service rose from 10 (see table 14), to 15 percent (see table 15). This 5 percent increase in interest was a result of the military benefit exceeding the national service benefit by 70 percent.²¹

The education benefit currently provided for two years of service in the Army, \$10,500, is only 10 percent greater than the prevailing national service educational grant. Among those youths predisposed to serve in the Army, the difference in benefits reinforced their decision, as reflected in an increase of the percentage from 35 percent (see table 14), to 49 percent. (see table 15), who said they would enlist. To compete with National and Community Service Act of 1993, the Army must maintain a substantial dollar advantage in its educational grants. Even so, national service offers an attractive alternative to both the military and the Army in particular. See Table 15.

TABLE 15

PROPENSITY TO SERVE IN MILITARY OR NATIONAL SERVICE

BASE	TOTAL%	HIGH-QUALITY%	POSITIVE PROPENSITY TO SERVE: ARMY%
FULL-TIME MILITARY SERVICE	18	15	49
NATIONAL SERVICE	28	31	22
WOULD NOT SERVE	26	28	6

Source: 1990 Survey of High School Youth and Parents, (Washington D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1990).

Length and Branch of Service Preferences

An important consideration for youth, when making career decisions, is length of commitment. High-quality youth according to this USAREC survey and the YATS prefer shorter commitments. This is relevant since the Army has only 7088 two year enlistments to offer in FY 1994 compared to the 20,000 two-year positions available in the national service program.²² Historically, two year enlistments compose 10 percent of the Army's total available enlistment terms. An additional consideration is that two year enlistment options are limited to select MOSs. These MOSs are not those that require or attract high-quality youth. Power generation equipment repairers, communication wire layers, and combat MOSs typify those available in the two

year enlistment categories.²³ However, the skills that high-quality youth want to enlist for require them to commit for three or more years. Of the youth who would choose full-time military service rather than national service, 26 percent say they would choose two years of service for \$17,000 in grants, 13 percent say they would choose three years for \$22,800 in grants and 46 percent said they would choose four years of service for \$25,200 in grants. These results suggest that when youth are committed to serving in the military they prefer to serve longer terms in return for larger educational benefits.²⁴ See Table 16.

TABLE 16

PREFERRED TERM LENGTHS FOR MILITARY SERVICE

BASE	TOTAL %	POSITIVE PROPENSITY TO SERVE: MILITARY	POSITIVE PROPENSITY TO SERVE: ARMY
TWO YEARS FOR \$17,000	13	11	15
THREE YEARS FOR \$22,800	26	17	20
FOUR YEARS FOR \$25,200	46	61	56

Source: 1990 Survey of High School Youth and Parents, (Washington D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1990).

Of the youth who would choose full-time military service, 31 percent say their first choice would be the Air Force, 23 percent Army, 19 percent Navy and 15 percent

Marines. Particular attention should be paid to this question. Of the 15 percent of high-quality youth who were previously identified as choosing full-time military service over national service, less than one-fourth, (23 percent), indicated they would choose the Army as their service of choice. This equates to slightly over 3 percent of all high-quality youth who said that the Army was their first service of choice.²⁵ See Table 17.

TABLE 17

HIGH-QUALITY YOUTH'S SERVICE OF CHOICE

FULL-TIME MILITARY SERVICE	AIR FORCE SERVICE	ARMY SERVICE	NAVY SERVICE	MARINE SERVICE
15%	31%	23%	19%	15%

Source: 1990 Survey of High School Youth and Parents, (Washington D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1990).

Commitment Terms Preferred by Youth Choosing National Service

Among the students who chose full-time national service over military service, 25 percent say they would choose one year of service for \$5,000 in grants and 58 percent said they would choose two years of service for \$10,000 in grants while 17 percent were not sure. The youth electing full-time national service preferred shorter terms of service with a total of 83 percent choosing to serve two

years or less. Given two year commitments in the military or national service, youth would accept overwhelmingly a significantly smaller educational grant in deference to a shorter commitment.²⁶ Since most high-quality youth prefer two year commitments and national service over military service, and given the limited two year enlistment options available in the Army, national service programs will draw the majority of high-quality youth.

Parent's Reaction to National Service

The opinions of parents are recognized as significant factors which influence the career decisions made by youth. When asked, "If they thought national service was a good idea," 92 percent of parents said that it was.²⁷ This response represents a more resounding endorsement of national service than that of the youth surveyed, 63 percent of whom said the act is a good idea. Parents were then asked, "If this act were passed, the educational grants would differ depending on the term of service chosen. For example, youth would receive a \$5,000 grant for education for one year of full-time community service compared to two years of full-time military service, and a \$17,200 grant, which would you prefer?" Exactly one-half of parents, 50 percent, say they would prefer their child choose full-time community service while, 31 percent said full-time military service.²⁸ Two year full-time national service options were not presented to parents as a

choice, yet they chose a significantly reduced education benefit of \$5,000 for national service compared to \$17,000 for military service. The results of these questions are particularly interesting. Even though the educational benefit of military service exceeded that offered by national service, parents responded enthusiastically to the national service idea, and can be expected to recommend national service to their children as the preferred means of obtaining educational assistance.²⁹

Current Attitudes Among Youth and Parents

The 1992 YATS asked youth who were positively propensed toward enlistment a question regarding national service. This question was generic in that it offered no description of the form national service would take or what benefits it would provide. When asked to choose between the military and a civilian service program, 66.2 percent indicated they would choose civilian service and 28.5 percent said they would still choose military service.³⁰

In January 1994, new recruits were asked a similar question upon their arrival at the Military Entrance Point Station (MEPS). New enlistees said that while they were satisfied with their decision to enlist, 3 percent said that if they had known about the national service option they would have chosen it over military service.³¹ This information shows the popularity of the national service concept, and implies that even after making the enlistment

decision, youth view national service as an attractive career step.

The Gallup National Security Monitor provides the most recent measure of youth attitudes. The January 1994 survey topic dealt with youth's awareness of the national service program, plans after high school graduation, and their opinions about the national service program and the military as means by which students could earn money to go to college.³² All respondents were asked whether they had heard of the national service program; 52 percent responded that they were aware of the program and its benefits.³³ The Army will spend \$24 million for advertising in FY 1994; and according to the YATS, awareness of Army programs and benefits is approximately equal to national service recognition at 54 percent.³⁴ This is significant in that there is no coordinated advertising campaign for promoting national service.

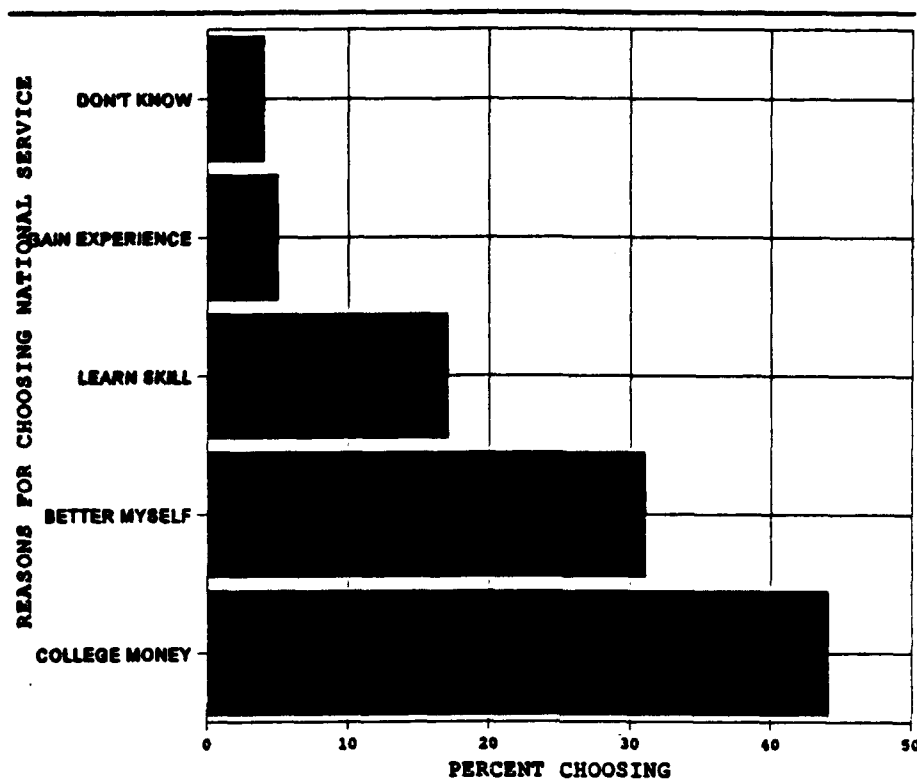
When asked what they planned to do after graduation, three out of four, or 76 percent of high school students said they planned to go to college, 13 percent planned to get a job, 9 percent planned to go to technical school, and 8 percent planned to join the military. These responses are consistent with those reported since 1990 and confirm current YATS propensity trends. Students were also queried about how interested they would be in earning money for college and learning job skills. Confirming the trend

established since 1982, 5 percent of the youth responded that they were interested in earning money for college and obtaining job skills.³⁵

Question three of the survey asked youths which option, military or national service, they would choose to earn money for college, given equal educational benefits. Overwhelmingly, national service was the most popular option. Only 28 percent preferred military service as a means to obtain college money, while 64 percent said they would choose national service.³⁶ Youth were then asked what they found appealing about national service; consistent with previous results, money for college, learning a skill, and a chance to better myself ranked as the top three reasons. See Table 18.

TABLE 18

REASONS NATIONAL SERVICE IS APPEALING



Source: George Gallup, The Gallup National Security Monitor, January 1994, Vol. 2, No.1), 1-6.

Effect National Service Will Have on the Army's Ability to Acquire High-Quality Recruits

Attempting to quantify the effect national service will have on Army recruit quality is difficult. However, it is clear that national service programs will reduce the number of quality recruits the Army can acquire. In the first year of the national service programs that begin in the fall of 1994, 20,000 young people will participate. These 20,000 youths are expected to meet the Army's

definition of high-quality. As discussed in chapter three, participants must possess a high school diploma or a GED. If they have not obtained either at the time of national service enrollment, they must agree to acquire a GED or complete high school and obtain a diploma. Additionally, these youth are likely to be enrolled in or planning to attend an institution of post secondary education. Most of the respondents in the surveys said that money for college was a primary consideration when making a decision, and that national service was the preferred method of obtaining the required funds. Therefore, all national service participants will be considered high-quality.

Several factors of the environment in which national and military service operate in may dissipate or exacerbate the effect that national service programs have on the Army. These include physical fitness requirements; size of the national service recruit pool, including individuals attending college; and civilian employment opportunities. Additionally, the number of positions available to participants in the national service programs will contribute to the effect national service has on the Army.

By its nature and because of its missions, Army service requires individuals to be physically fit. National service participants are under no such restrictions. Almost 4 percent of youth in the targeted recruiting category do not qualify physically to serve in the Army or the

military.³⁷ This segment of the population could participate in national service and would not effect Army recruiting. The remaining population of national service participants constitutes the group from which the Army and the other services will lose quality individuals.

Individuals attending college are also potential national service participants. They must be included in the pool of youth that are available to serve in national service programs. This will cause the available national service positions to be spread out among both college students and those youth indicating a desire to serve in the military. The effect is to reduce the impact that national service has on the Army because the recruitment pool is potentially larger for national service programs.

Increases in the size of the targeted youth pool between 1994 and 2010 will partially offset the effect that national service will have on Army recruit quality. The increase is relatively small, amounting to only 25,000 youths a year. These recruit eligible individuals are subject to the same influences previously discussed.

Civilian employment opportunities available to youth also contribute to the equation. A strong economy and a low youth unemployment rate, coupled with national service programs will make it more difficult for the Army to acquire the required number of quality recruits. The inverse, a

weak economy and high youth unemployment, will work in the Army's favor by decreasing the options available to youth.

Of the 550,000 high-quality youth expressing a desire to serve in the military, 14 percent of them were identified as preferring service in the Army. This equates to approximately 77,000 individuals, or roughly the same number that the Army must recruit annually. Thirty-four percent of the individuals choosing Army service said that given an option between military and national service, they would choose national service, equating to 24,500 individuals of the 70,000 the Army must recruit. These youth represent the potential loss of high-quality recruits to the Army. The actual loss depends on how many of these youth are successful in obtaining national service positions.

Despite the difficulty of predicting quantifiable effects, national service programs will reduce the number of high-quality recruits enlisting in the Army. The All-Volunteer Army is a market based institution, as is the national service program. Youth choose one over the other based on perceived economic and non-economic benefits. As long as the benefits offered by both forms of service remains equal, national service will remain the most attractive. Additionally, since obtaining a national service position is competitive, only the highest quality individuals will serve in national service programs, thereby

reducing the total numbers of high-quality individuals available to serve in the Army.

With 20,000 participants serving in the first year, national service will have minimal effect on Army recruit quality. However, as the program expands to the predicted 100,000 participants in 1997 the effect will increase. Considering the cumulative effect of three years of competition from national service, the Army's ability to acquire high-quality recruits will be reduced significantly.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This thesis examined the effect that the National and Community Service Act of 1993 will have on the Army's ability to acquire high-quality recruits. It has discussed the history and background of the All-Volunteer Army and National Service in the United States. Additionally, it described the four environmental factors bearing on the problem including, the size and quality of the recruitment eligible youth pool, the increasingly technical weapons employed by the Army, reduced recruiting budgets and propensity of youth to serve in the Army, and benefits offered for serving in the Army or a national service program. Finally, it has described the historical and current attitudes of youth and their parents regarding national service and determined the effect that National Service programs will have on the Army's ability to recruit high-quality youth.

Conclusions

Competition from the National and Community Service Act of 1993 will reduce the number of high-quality youth the Army is able to recruit. Four steps were used to

form the basis for the research and analysis concerning this problem. The first step was to focus on the development, history, and current status of the all-volunteer force and national service by asking the question; "What has been the experience of the United States with the All-Volunteer Army and National Service?"

Between 1970, when the Gates Commission developed the basis for the All-Volunteer Force and 1992, the quality of the Army's recruits and the technical sophistication of its weapons systems continually increased. The improvements in quality achieved since the Vietnam War have resulted in the highest quality, best trained Army in the world. Successes in recent conflicts involving the United States Army, such as Just Cause and Desert Storm, are pertinent examples. With the end of the Cold War, force restructuring, and increased competition for recruits, the Army is beginning to experience a reduction in the quality of its soldiers. With the end of the draft, the Army has become a market-based institution, and has had to compete for high-quality individuals in the marketplace.

National service programs are one form of competition for high-quality youth. Proponents of national service see it as a means of reducing youth unemployment, providing finances to youth for post secondary education, and instilling a sense of civic pride among its participants. The National and Community Service Act of

1993 is designed to achieve these goals. From 1994 to 1997, 150,000 young people will participate in national service programs. They will work as teacher's aides, day care providers, recreational positions, and in many other occupations. In exchange for their service they will receive wages, health insurance, day care benefits, and educational grants. National Service offers a popular option to youth when they are making post secondary education career decisions.

Second, was an examination of the four factors that define the national service and military environment including: reduced propensity to serve in the military and the associated decrease in the Army's recruiting budget, the Army's increased use of technologically sophisticated weapons, the reduced quality and size of the youth population, and benefits of serving in either the Army or a national service program. The first of these factors is the declining propensity of youth to choose the Army as a career option. One of the primary reasons for the current decline in enlistment propensity among youth are the increased tensions throughout the world and the involvement of Army forces. In conjunction with the declining propensity to enlist is the associated reduction in the Army recruiting budget. A direct correlation exists between the size of the Army's advertising recruiting budget and enlistment propensity. Youth's propensity to enlist has declined since

1989, when the Army's recruiting budget stood at \$73 million and positive enlistment propensity was 14 percent. In 1994, the budget has declined to \$23.6 million and enlistment propensity has fallen to less than 10 percent.

Additionally, a strong economy and low youth unemployment works against the Army's ability to recruit high-quality individuals. The more employment opportunities a youth has, the more difficult it is for the Army to achieve its enlistment goals.

The next factor involves the Army's increasing reliance on technologically sophisticated weapon and support systems to substitute for quantity. Modern systems rely on electronics and microprocessors and require technically skilled soldiers to operate and maintain them. Today over 30 percent of all MOSs qualify as technical in nature. This dependence on technology demands that the Army continue to recruit high-quality individuals capable of operating and maintaining these sophisticated systems.

Third, the size and quality of the targeted youth population plays a key role. In 1994 the eligible, targeted youth pool equals only 1.7 million high-quality youth. Of that population, only 550,000 are available as potential recruits, while the remainder of the 1.1 million don't meet enlistment eligibility requirements, or are dedicated to attending college immediately following high school graduation. Difficulty in recruiting high-quality youths

increases when there are fewer youth with increasing career options. The targeted youth population will begin to grow in 1995, but the increase is insufficient to completely offset the expanding size of the national service programs. Additionally, the quality of the targeted population has declined. SAT scores and the number of high school graduates have reached all time lows, further reducing the numbers of high-quality youth.

Last, the benefits offered by the National and Community Service Act of 1993 are almost identical to those available for a new Army recruit. Money for education is the primary reason that high-quality youth indicate they consider when making a choice between military and national service. National service programs offer an educational grant of \$9450, only ten percent less than the \$10,500 provided by the Army, a difference that is insufficient to cause youth to choose Army service over national service.

Step three analyzed the trends for future service in either the Army or national service. Analyzing these trends required a determination of, "What factors influence youth's career decisions?" Several factors affect a high-quality youth's decision in choosing between service in the Army and national service. Of those factors "money for college," "skill training," parental influence, and commitment length are the most important. High-quality youths prefer to commit two years or less to the military or national

service. They are willing to forfeit substantial increases in educational benefits to obtain a shorter commitment. Parents and youths overwhelmingly prefer national service as a way to obtain educational grants.

Step four focused on analyzing the effect that competition from national service programs would have on the Army's ability to acquire high-quality recruits, given that youth prefer to serve in national service programs. The National and Community Service Act of 1993 will affect the numbers of high-quality recruits the Army can acquire in 1994. When given the option of national service and Army service, 34 percent of high-quality youths, who previously said they would serve in the military, chose national service. This equates to 24,500 of the 70,000 individuals the Army must recruit annually. This represents the potential loss of high-quality recruits to the Army. Given the size of the current national service program, the near-term effect will be minimal. In subsequent years, as national service expands, the Army will suffer significantly increased reductions in recruit quality.

Recommendations

The Army has several options available to deal with the competition from national service. One of those options is to compete directly with national service programs for quality recruits. To compete effectively, the Army must increase substantially its educational benefits in

proportion to those available to national service participants. Further, a restructuring of enlistment terms and associated MOSs would be necessary. Direct competition with national service would mean that the Army must offer the skill training that high-quality individuals desire, coupled with shorter enlistment terms and larger educational grants.

Another option is to wait and observe the effects that national service will have on Army recruit quality before taking action. There is an obvious, inherent danger in this option. Reduced recruit quality, in the near-term, will erode the Army's effectiveness and efficiency in manning its equipment, and increase operating costs associated with that erosion. Long-term implications are potentially more damaging. Recruits enlisting today will be the future leaders and trainers of those soldiers that follow. Lowering the quality of today's recruits will result in less competent leaders for tomorrow and may effect adversely the ability of the Army to accomplish its future missions.

Third, the Army could take advantage of national service programs. The Army could still benefit from those high-quality individuals that choose national service by establishing its own service program. Government agencies are allowed to take advantage of national service participants; and the Army could employ these individuals in

the same ways that civilian programs will use them. With the reductions of Army civilians occurring concurrently with the soldier drawdown, many jobs previously performed by those civilians are going unfilled. National service participants could function much like the "summer hires" employed currently by the Army, except that they would be available to the Army for an entire year. They could work in many Army on-post programs by operating organized youth recreational programs, serving as day-care providers, and performing post maintenance functions on facilities, grounds and equipment.

Recommendations for Further Study

The long-term effects of lower numbers of high-quality recruits must be studied. Many studies have dealt with the effect that low-quality recruits have on the Army and the military. New research is needed considering the Army's evolving missions and structure during a period of declining recruit quality. The long-term implications of this problem will have serious consequences for the future national security of the United States.

Now that national service is a reality, the survival of the All-Volunteer Army in its present form is in jeopardy. If the Army is to retain the quality edge it has over other armed forces in the world, it must continue to acquire high-quality soldiers. Existence of national

service programs makes that proposition difficult. The Army and the National Service Corporation are governmental agencies at cross-purposes, each competing for the same finite resource. Research should be undertaken to determine if national service and the Army can or should be integrated. Integration would end the All-Volunteer Army in its current form by instituting some version of universal service, where military and civic service are the options. Information obtained from measuring the effect that the National and Community Service Act of 1993 has on the Army may provide insights into this dilemma.

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